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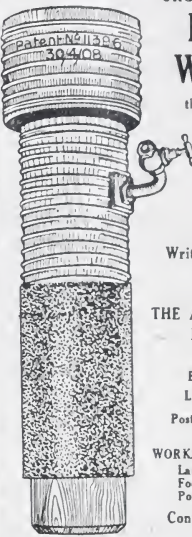
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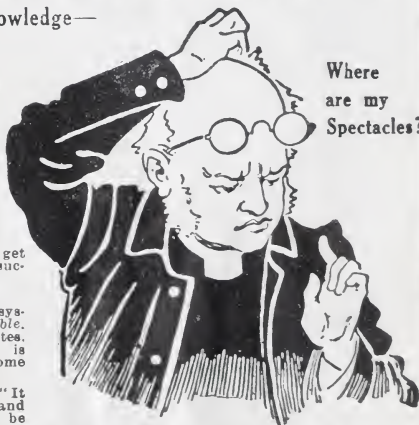
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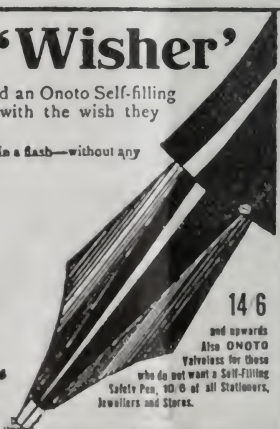
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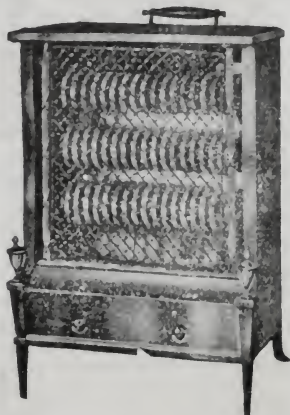
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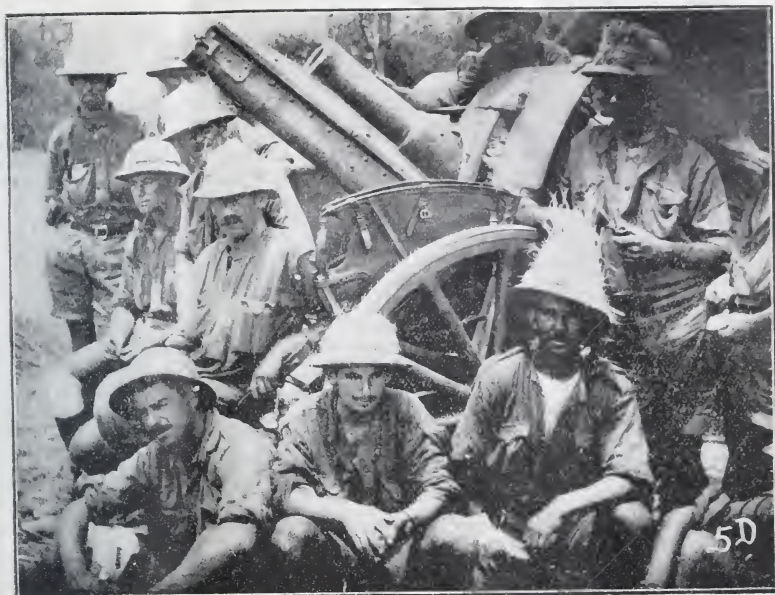
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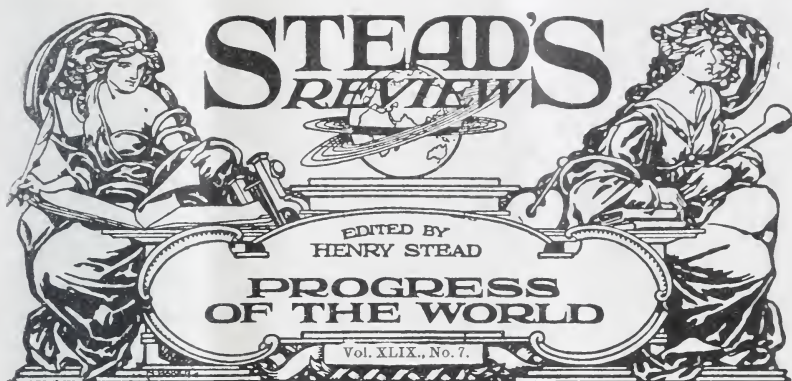


GERMAN EAST AFRICA CAPTURED.

The enemy have been entirely driven out of their last colony, East Africa. A 4-inch gun taken during their flight.



THE NEW ARRANGEMENT OF RUSSIA.



MARCH 30, 1918.

The Great Offensive Begins.

It is a matter of the greatest difficulty to write about the situation on the west front on March 30th, when, by the time STEAD'S appears a week later, the entire position will have changed. All that can be done is to recount what has happened and draw certain conclusions from the events of the seven days which have passed since the enemy offensive began. For the last two months cables have told us that the Germans were massing for a mighty assault, but naturally they did not disclose where the blow was to fall. Despite these assurances, however, reports were published in our papers on March 22nd, declaring that "the initiative still rested with the Allies," whilst recently a general doubt has been expressed concerning the delivery of any attack at all. On March 21st, however, Mr. Bonar Law announced in the House of Commons that the great German offensive had begun that morning on a fifty mile front from the Scarpe to the Oise. Cables asserted that, although the immense enemy concentration had been carried out with the utmost secrecy, Sir Douglas Haig was perfectly aware of all that was going on, his air scouts having reported every munition dump, every railway line, every

aerodrome, as it was made or completed. Therefore, we were assured all preparations to meet the offensive had been made, and that there was no cause for uneasiness. Correspondents suggested that the main object of the foe was to pinch out the slice of the Hindenburg line which we had captured in November.

The Enemy Reports Accurate.

"A High Military Authority," in denying that news of enemy successes had been held back, explained that the Germans were naturally in a far better position to get prompt information than was a retiring army, whose communications were broken or badly interrupted. He went on to say that the German statements about prisoners and guns taken were probably correct. It was impossible for the retiring commanders to ascertain immediately what their losses had been whilst the enemy could quickly learn the number of cannon, men and tanks they had captured. This explanation was necessary and sufficient. Had it not been given it was inevitable that people jumped to the conclusion that the Allied leaders were attempting to minimise the danger. The reason why the German communiqué announced the capture of Bapaume, Peronne, Noyon, Roye and Albert

many hours before the British official reports admitted their loss, is because throughout the entire offensive these reports have been some twelve hours or more later than the German communiques. It was important to remember this when attempting to follow the course of the battle. It was only by the enemy reports and the appearance in British and French cables of the names of certain villages and towns that we were able to learn how the fight was going.

Bapaume and Peronne Lost.

The offensive began on a Thursday. By Friday afternoon our reports admitted that the enemy had smashed through our defensive system westward of St. Quentin and were rapidly advancing. On the same day the Germans must have penetrated the Allied defences opposited La Fère, and by Saturday were well on their way towards Noyon. The German communiqué stated, however, that our defences were broken on Thursday, and that on Friday they stormed Roisel and Marquaix, east of Peronne, and some seven miles behind the line the British troops had held. In the north they claimed to have broken through our defences south of the Somme, near Croiselles, which place was in their hands, and further asserted that Sir Douglas Haig had abandoned the defences west of Cambrai. The enemy claim at that time was 25,000 prisoners, 400 cannon, and 300 machine guns. The French communiqué on Friday and Saturday referred to heavy bombardments east of Rheims, at Verdun, and in Alsace. On Sunday the Germans claimed to have taken Bapaume, Peronne and Chauny (between La Fère and Noyon), but British reports did not admit the loss of these places, whilst cables from Paris denied that the enemy had captured them. On Monday, however, the abandonment of Bapaume was admitted from London. The Germans reported their prisoners increased to 30,000, and the captured guns to 600. They also claimed immense booty at Chauny and elsewhere.

The French Intervene.

The French announced that on Saturday their troops "intervened" in the battle, relieving the British east of Noyon, whilst reference was made to successful French operations on the Somme near Combles. On Monday afternoon the enemy took Nesle, due south of Peronne, and due north of Noyon. A French official communiqué received here on Wednesday admitted the

loss of Noyon. After Monday's fighting the enemy claimed to have taken altogether 963 cannon and 100 tanks. On Tuesday the enemy appear to have occupied Albert, the loss of the place being admitted in London on Wednesday, though it is only in the enemy communiqué of Wednesday night that reference is made to the storming of Noyon and to "bloody fighting" there. In the German report, sent out on Thursday night, the capture of Mondidier is claimed, and the occupation of villages on the Somme and the Avre rivers recorded. French communiqués on the same night denied the foe's success at Mondidier, but reports from Paris, which have come through to-day (Saturday), seem to indicate that the enemy has the place after all. The loss of Royé, between Nesle and Mondidier, is admitted. Saturday morning's papers tell of a formidable German offensive against Arras.

Close to Amiens.

In this very brief summary of gigantic events I have not attempted to tell of heroic efforts here and there, of gigantic enemy losses, of the upsetting of the Hindenburg time-table, of the magnificent morale of our troops, of the harassing of the enemy forces, their waning strength, the manner in which they have rushed beyond their supplies, the splendid deeds of our airmen and the magnificent manner in which our arranged retreat was carried out. Mention of such things only confuses the position, and alters the situation as we find it to-day not at all. There are a few points which it might be useful to emphasise. After exactly one week's fighting, the enemy have won back the whole of the territory they evacuated early last year, and which took us just three weeks to occupy as they withdrew. They have captured Noyon; they are in Albert; they have won back the hill positions south of Arras, and have penetrated to Mondidier, only eighteen miles south of Amiens, and are reported ten miles east of the latter place. In reading the cables which come here few people seem to realise that they tell of events which have happened two days or even more before, but that fact must be borne in mind. Further, the history of the last week has demonstrated that we may accept the German reports as being fairly accurate. That is to say, they have never thus far claimed to have taken any place whose loss was not later admitted by the Allies.

What Will Happen?

As far as the object of the offensive is concerned, that should have disclosed itself before these lines appear. The fact that the hostile forces are driving towards Amiens shows, of course, that the immediate goal is to divide the British and French armies, but as such a division would not end the war it can only be regarded as a preliminary move. Assuming it successful what will follow? Have the enemy strength enough to launch a terrific offensive against the French, whilst holding up the British and preventing them from sending help to their Ally? It is difficult to say, but that the enemy object is to deal a heavy blow at the French seems certain. It may be that this will be directed at Paris, but it is more likely to be aimed against the field army. The Germans always try to put an army out of action rather than capture towns, for only by destroying its power of resistance can a nation be crushed. The Allied answer to the German advance is hourly expected, but thus far it has not been given. The reported drive against Arras proves that despite their terrific efforts the Germans are still strong and formidable, are able to continue their advance, and at the same time organise new drives against the British in the north and the French in the south. Our papers naturally minimise the German success, but are obliged to admit the gravity of the position.

The One Thing Needful Missing.

Readers will remember that in discussing the possibility of an enemy offensive in the west, I have declared that the Germans should not be able to break through any more than we have been able to, but that I always made the reservation, "providing the Allies had made *adequate defensive lines*, to which they could fall back, had gridironed the country between the fighting front and Paris with formidable defences, the taking of which would entail enormous losses on the foe." When the lack of defensive lines was disclosed by the rapid advance of the Germans, I felt as I did when I learned that, contrary to universal belief, the huge *Titanic* did not have enough boats to accommodate a quarter of the passengers she carried. When that appalling knowledge came to me I knew that I would never see my father again. The White Star Company had neglected to supply boats, although they provided every luxury for sumptuous

travel. The *Titanic* struck an iceberg and went down. The luxuries proved worthless, and all would have been cheerfully given for a single boat. Over a thousand men, women and children were drowned solely owing to lack of foresight.

70,000 Prisoners, 100 Tanks, and 1000 Cannon.

Evidently Allied leaders have implicit faith in the counter offensive, and have purposely invited open warfare. We can take comfort in this, at any rate, and the news that Sir Douglas Haig was only using a portion of his available divisions holding the greater number in reserve, gives confirmation of the suggested tactics which will be adopted. On the other hand, it has been dinned into our ears for the last few months that all we proposed to do in the west was to hang on until the American armies arrived. It is obvious of course that unless the counter-attack, when launched, drives the enemy right back, or captures great bodies of hostile soldiery, the price we have had to pay is going to be very heavy. The Germans claim to have taken at least 100 tanks, over a thousand guns, and 70,000 prisoners. In addition, they must have secured immense quantities of ammunition and other supplies. Confirmation of this is given by Mr. Churchill's urgent appeal to the munition workers to get busy to replace the huge losses we have sustained.

The Allied Counter Attack.

Within the next few days we should hear of the Allied counter-offensive. Obviously this can only be delivered against the enemy in the open, consequently must fall somewhere between Arras and Laon. Anywhere else would only bring our troops against almost impenetrable enemy defences, which they have again and again shown can be held successfully against immensely superior numbers. The most likely spot the Allies will select is near Noyon, for a successful blow there would jeopardise the entire German force which had pushed beyond Peronne towards Amiens. A French attack at Noyon would of course be supported by a British offensive from the north, but clearly the Germans are already trying to cripple this by their furious attack on Arras. If they manage to break our line there and thrust us back, this would most seriously interfere with arrangements for a great counter-attack, might indeed paralyse it—temporary, at any rate.

The Strain in England and in France.

We of course have no true idea as to the casualties the Germans have suffered any more than they could really tell the extent of our losses during the Somme offensive. There has never yet been a case where the General attacked did not over-estimate the damage he inflicted. The Germans are employing a new method of advance somewhat on the lines of the rushes which are such a feature of the American game of football. One body of men rush forward and seize an objective which they hang on to whilst another body, passing through their ranks, rushes the next, and so on. Once our front lines were broken through there could have been little artillery preparation, as the advance was too rapid for the heavy cannon to keep pace with, but machine guns appear to have been largely used. The Germans have such an uncanny way of foreseeing what is likely to happen that they have undoubtedly taken measures to provide against our counter-attacks. However, there is comfort in the reflection that the enemy have failed before, and we can only hope they will fail to get Amiens or Paris, as they failed to take Verdun and Venice. We here in far-off Australia, untouched by the war, feeding on the fat of the land, feel the terrible anxiety of these days. What must it be in England, where there is no home but has some loved member fighting for his life in France; in France, where the thunder of the guns echoes through streets of the capital, and where the torrent of invasion sweeps over villages and towns endeared to hundreds of thousands by life long occupation. The people of France are still confident, still certain of final victory. They have implicit trust in the genius of their military leaders, and we cannot do better than follow their cheery example.

Why Germans Attack in Masses.

Wonder has often been expressed as to why the Germans advance in masses. Some experts assure us that they do this in order to keep up their courage—that, in advancing in open order they lose their morale, but this view is not seriously entertained now. The reason for the mass formation is as follows.—We have learnt much about machine-gun tactics from the Germans, and have adopted from them the method of covering the ground immediately before our defences by cross-fire, instead of by the old method of direct fire. It is said to be utterly hopeless for any man to cross country which is covered by angled

machine-gun fire. He might get through if the guns were all firing straight across the area; but he has no chance whatever of reaching the trenches when the cross-fire system of defence is employed. Therefore, for troops to attempt to get across in open order is to court disaster. If they attack in masses, there is a possibility of some of the men getting through. That is to say, the bullets are stopped by the unfortunates on the outer edge of the mass. The middle core is thus protected by human armour, so to speak, and sometimes is able to rush right into our trenches.

The Situation in Picardy at the Moment.

To sum up, as far as is possible with news so indefinite and confusing, it would seem that the immediate enemy objective is Amiens. That to interfere with the expected British counter-offensive they will also make a powerful attempt to take Arras. That attempt ought to fail, for there, we ought to have strong defensive entrenchments. If this frontal attack proves unsuccessful, we may expect to read the names of Rivière, Beaumont and Basseu in the cables during the next few days, for obviously the Germans would try and win by outflanking what they failed to secure by a direct offensive. Mondulier is the critical spot at the moment. It is somewhere about here that the British and French armies join. If foiled at this place the enemy are likely to dig in, and to give their soldiers time to do this would no doubt launch an attack at the French towards the Aisne, and at the same time begin an offensive somewhere south of Verdun. It is quite clear that the British military strategists believe rather in the counter-attack as a means of defence than in the set lines of defensive works, that being so they must be quite ready to launch one. Its *point de départ* would apparently be Arras, therefore news from this place should be anxiously looked for. Tremendous efforts are being made in Great Britain to replace the lost guns and ammunition, and most confident official statements are being issued. The French, too, seem to be entirely certain of their ability to check the Germans. It would be stupidly foolish to minimise the extent of the enemy success thus far. Even though halted they have made a large gain of territory, are within a dozen miles of Amiens, have captured 72,000 prisoners, more than a hundred tanks, and over a thousand guns, whilst naturally large

quantities of shells, powder, and other ammunition must have fallen into their hands. But such a success in itself does not mean victory, or bring it much nearer to their clutching hands. As I have always pointed out, for the German General Staff to launch a great offensive in the west—and fail, might easily have dramatic consequences in Germany itself. For various reasons I am not dealing with the situation that would arise if the enemy succeed in their immediate objective. In any case they are not likely to reach it.

Shelling Paris at 70-mile Range.

Much space has been devoted in our papers to the German super-gun, which is dropping shells into Paris from a distance of, it is said, almost 70 miles. That any weapon could be invented which would propel a shell this immense distance seemed incredible, but there now appears to be no doubt at all about it. The propellant force must be absolutely terrific, and, from the experience with 15-inch guns, which have a range of over twenty miles, it is assumed that the tremendous heat generated would prevent sufficient charge being used to send a shell 70 miles. Evidently we have some new invention here. Possibly a metal which can resist the most scorching heat generated by exploding gases, or a new propellant powder which does not produce the intensely high temperature of those we have been using in our guns. The shell is small, but evidently contains some terrific explosive. The theory has been advanced that it sheds a portion of itself immediately after leaving the gun, but whatever the gun and shell are like there is now no doubt about their existence, and we are obliged to credit the astounding fact that a missile can be hurled for 70 miles through the air and land on its objective. This appears to be the only surprise weapon the Germans have used during the present offensive, and it is of but slight military value after all. It may have considerable moral effect, of course—imagine Sydney or Melbourne with a death-dealing, high-explosive shell dropping into their busiest streets and wrecking their greatest buildings every quarter of an hour—but will disturb our soldiers in the field not at all. The enemy offensive has shown that they have no surprise for us, and that is in itself a great thing. There was always the possibility that they might have evolved some wonderful weapon which,

like our tanks at Cambrai, might have swept all before it. That fear has been definitely laid. The enemy have only used the weapons to which our men are accustomed, the chief development having been the more intensive use of their favourite weapon, the machine gun. The Jutland battle relieved us of all fear that the Germans had evolved some super-warship against which our guns would have fired in vain, and the tremendous offensive now going on has demonstrated that we need fear no new weapon which might make the enemy armies still more formidable.

An Offensive in Italy.

It is almost certain that the offensive in France will be followed by one in Italy. Already French and British troops have been recalled from Venetia, and, whilst the fight continues in the west none can be spared to stiffen the Italian armies. Even in the great rush which compelled the collapse of Italian resistance on the Isonzo few German troops appear to have taken part, and an offensive from the Trentino into Lombardy would not entail any drain at all on the German armies. It would be purely an Austrian affair, directed possibly by German high command. Cables tell us of great military concentration in the Trentino. The Austrians are at present holding a line 120 miles long from the down-jutting western point of the Trentino to the Adriatic. From that point to the Mediterranean, at Genoa, is only 120 miles, and from Genoa due north to the Swiss frontier, *via* Milan, is only 95 miles. The main object of a formidable blow against Italy would naturally be to force that country to make peace, and the cutting of all land communications between it and its Allies would go a long way towards making it impossible for the Italians to continue the fight. Our main hope, so far as Italy is concerned, is that the Austrians will be without German direction, and will again bungle things as they did in their first Trentino drive.

The Situation in Russia.

The western front overshadows every thing else, but notable things are still happening in Russia. It is reported that the Germans have been expelled from Odessa, and that Nicholaieff, which they took a few days ago, is again in Bolshevik hands. Probably few German soldiers ever reached Odessa. It was the Little Russians who took the place under German direction, and as the Bolsheviks refuse to recognise the

Ukrainian State the Little Russians are at war with them. There is little chance that Odessa will long remain in Bolshevik hands. Its possession is too vital to the Ukrainians.

The New Russian States.

In the map which frontispieces this issue I have roughly indicated the new States which have been set up in Russia. The boundaries are those which frontiered the particular provinces within the Russian Empire which have declared themselves independent, but as we have as yet had no particulars whatever concerning the terms of the Russian, Ukrainian and Roumanian treaties, they are of course only approximate. The map serves to show, however, the manner in which the Central Empires have severed themselves completely from direct contact with Russia. The intention is obviously to bring a number of States into being friendly to them and hostile to Russia, which will form most effective buffers, and permanently remove all danger of a sudden Russian invasion. Kherson, on the Dnieper, some 150 miles east of Odessa and 100 miles west of the isthmus which connects the Crimea with the mainland, is reported to be in German hands. The Russian Black Sea Fleet is said to have gone to Sebastopol, and the Germans are evidently going after it. Once they seize the isthmus and destroy the railway bridge which links the Crimea with Russia somewhat further east, the enemy will have isolated Sebastopol, and would no doubt compel its surrender. Meantime, the Crimea itself has been declared an independent republic. The Germans would never venture to send their soldiers so deep into Russian territory were it not for the fact that they can rely upon large sections of the people for support. Everywhere, so correspondents tell us, the Germans are restoring law and order, and as a natural result their coming is being hailed with joy by all who have suffered at the hands of the Red Guards of the Bolsheviks.

In Mesopotamia and Palestine.

General Maude's successor, Sir William Marshall, is making satisfactory progress in Mesopotamia. A few weeks ago he took Hit, and now reports a successful engagement on the Euphrates, twenty-two miles north-west of this place. By a wide detour his cavalry got behind the Turkish force there, and prevented their escape when the infantry attacked. Over 5000 prisoners were taken, and a further stride towards

Aleppo and Damascus was thus made. In Palestine Sir Edmund Allenby continues to push up the Jordan, and is beginning to penetrate east of the stream, having reached Es Salt, better known as Ramoth Gilead, at the foot of Mount Gilead, which a branch line connects with the Damascus-Medina railway. The former place is just about a hundred miles from Es Salt. Between Damascus and Hit lie 400 miles of desert. Now that he has got across the railway General Allenby should soon push forward to Damascus, the greatest city in that part of the world, and ultimately should join hands with the Anglo-Indian army from Mesopotamia. Whilst this advance in Asia Minor is highly satisfactory, its permanent value depends entirely upon what happens in France during the next few days.

The American Ships.

On another page I deal with the shipping question. Since that article was written Mr. Hurley, chairman of the United States Shipping Board, has issued a most reassuring statement, but one which nevertheless cannot but cause surprise. If all the tonnage he tells us of be available, there ought to be no shortage at all. According to him, since the United States entered the war, no less than 2,120,000 tons of shipping had been completed, 3,000,000 tons had been requisitioned, and 800,000 tons of enemy vessels had been placed at the service of the Allies, a total of almost 6,000,000 tons altogether, as much has, according to Sir Eric Geddes, the Germans sank last year! If to this we add the 1,120,000 tons built in England, the tonnage built in Japan, France, Italy, and Holland, we discover that we must actually be 2,000,000 tons better off to-day than we were a year ago! Presumably the 3,000,000 tons requisitioned was nothing more than a transfer of cargo-carrying ships from private to State ownership. It is difficult to reconcile the 2,121,000 tons completed since April last with the 800,000 tons which the Secretary of the Navy stated some time ago had been built since America entered the war. Full particulars of the enemy ships sheltering in American harbours were published long before the United States entered the struggle. The German ships totalled altogether 511,000 tons, and the few Austrian vessels not 50,000 tons. However, whilst we find it impossible to understand Mr. Turley's figures of tonnage, we hail with delight his announcement that America

has increased her ship-workers' from 45,000 to 236,000, and her shipyards from 37 to 81. The record of sinking during the past week is again up, 20 over 1600 tons and 17 under—British, French and Italian—having been claimed as victims by the U-boats.

Seizing the Dutch Mercantile Marine.

The taking over by the Allies of all Dutch ships found in their harbours is apparently being done without the consent of the Government at The Hague. The original proposal was that, in exchange for certain supplies, of which she stood in deadly need, Holland should agree to the taking over by the Allies of some 600,000 tons of Dutch shipping. This apparently she consented to, providing the Allies would undertake that these vessels should not be armed, should not carry troops, transport munitions, or be used in the danger zone. This the Allies would not promise, and therefore Dutch consent was refused. The unfortunate Hollanders are between the upper and the nether millstones. If they agree to hand over shipping to the Allies the Germans inform them that no more coal or other necessities will be sent them. If they refuse to submit to the Allies' demands they lose their ships. The Government has apparently decided to make no agreements with either side, so that the Germans cannot accuse it of helping the Allies, and the Allies cannot accuse it of helping the Germans. President Wilson bases his claim to the Dutch ships on the ground of what is known as *Angary*. This *Droit d'Angarie* is the right of a belligerent to dispose of, use and destroy if need be property belonging to neutral states found on belligerent territory should the necessities of war demand it. Although the clauses in The Hague Convention dealing with the matter seem to suggest that this right applies only to neutral rolling-stock and the like found in *occupied* territory, President Wilson is presumably right in his contention that belligerent territory means the territory of any belligerent. It is provided, in these articles, that although these things may be used for military purposes they "must be restored at the conclusion of peace, and indemnities paid for them." So far as I have been able to ascertain this is the first time neutral ships, trading to ports *not in enemy occupation*, have been summarily seized.

Mr. Watt Becomes Treasurer.

The resignation of Lord Forrest, unfortunately necessitated by his ill-health, created a vacancy at the Treasury. Mr. Watt was obviously the only man to fill the post, of which he had actually been in charge for some time. It is a remarkable tribute to his ability that although but a recent arrival in the Federal Parliament he should already be filling the position of Treasurer, which ranks next to that of Prime Minister, although just now the Minister of the Navy is actually the second man in the Cabinet. Mr. Watt will, however, be the head of the Government when Mr. Hughes and Mr. Cook go to England, and not a few members, and others, wish that his temporary office would become permanent. As far as Australia is concerned matters of finance are easily the most pressing, and the task of seeing that the country pays its way requires to be in most efficient and capable hands. Mr. Groom well deserves his promotion to Ministerial rank, and will no doubt soon be at home in Mr. Watt's old position at the head of the Railways and Works Department. His post as Assistant Minister of Defence has been filled by Mr. Wise. Mr. Orchard, as honorary Minister, is to take charge of the Government's recruiting schemes; Mr. Poynton—a former Treasurer—and Mr. Massey Greene, who has long been Liberal Whip, are the remaining honorary Ministers. The latter will help Mr. Jensen, who will have charge of a glorified Department of Trade and Customs. Rumbblings of discontent are again being heard from the rank and file of the Nationalist party, and as the "discontents" grow in strength they will force the Government to pay heed to them. Probably their first effort will be to prevent a long adjournment of Parliament by refusing to vote Supply for more than a month or so. In this they will of course have the support of the entire Labour Party in the House. Presumably when Parliament meets next week Mr. Hughes will announce the approximate date of his departure. On the last occasion, it will be remembered, he did not give his friends a chance of bidding him farewell as, after publically stating that he was sailing on a vessel homeward bound through Suez, he vanished into space, and was next heard of somewhere in the Pacific.

The Labour Victory in Queensland.

STEAD'S went to press just before the result of the Queensland election was known, so no reference could be made to the remarkable Labour victory in our last number. Six months ago it was confidently predicted that the Ryan Government would be utterly routed at the polls, but actually it routed its opponents in no uncertain fashion. It returns to power with 48 supporters, the Opposition being able to muster 24 only. The Government gained seven seats and lost four, being three to the good as compared with its pre-election position, but the win was a sweeping one right through the State. Various reasons have been advanced to explain the smashing defeat of the so-called Nationalists, but none of them can explain it away. The Ryan Government has promised the people a very great deal, and in view of the present financial position of the State careful folk cannot view these promises with anything but grave apprehension. Already in Queensland, so it seems, anyone in want can get help from the State. That is, of course, a very pleasing position so long as the financial strain involved will not seriously cripple the Treasury; but State aid can go a good deal too far, and ultimately convert an independent people into a crowd of leaners who look to the State to help them at all times, regard it as their indulgent foster parent whose duty it is to look after them. The lavish promises of the Labour leaders had something to do with the defeat of the Nationalists, but Mr. Hughes was probably even more responsible. It is not necessary to again go into the Warwick incident, but that affair, and the Federal Police which grew out of it, undoubtedly antagonised the electors against Mr. Hughes, and, as he is at present the official leader of the Nationalists in Australia, this party had to suffer for it. There are Federal Police in Queensland, so it seems, busily engaged in doing nothing, and naturally the highly efficient State policemen resent the presence of these well paid but leisured officials. The police of the States have carried out every Federal direction hitherto except to arrest the mythical egg thrower at Warwick—and naturally the States object to the foisting of a distinct Federal Police force upon them.

South Australia and Victoria.

The elections in South Australia are near. The Labour Party is in a very parlous condition, lacking leaders and a definite programme. Its ablest men have been temporarily swallowed by the Nationalist party, and the general opinion is expressed that Mr. Peake will easily win this time. It is amazing though how Labour, with notable disadvantages, steadily increases its representation in the various Parliaments. Split in twain by Mr. Hughes, losing its most prominent leaders, it still comes up strong at the polls. In Victoria, with almost everything against it, it yet improved its position. In N.S.W., despite the cession of Mr. Holman and his most able colleagues, it put up a creditable fight at the last election, and in Queensland—where the defections were few—it seems to be permanently installed in office. Although the Peake Government will no doubt be returned to power, Labour will likely do better than anticipated. Mr. Lawson, as expected, was asked by the Governor to form a new Ministry in Victoria. After some days' delay he managed to do this, and succeeded in winning over the Bowser party to his side. At the same time he retained the support of the old Peacock party, of which he was a prominent member. At the moment he runs the danger which overtakes those of whom all men speak well. His coalition Government includes four salaried Ministers who were members of the Peacock party—Mr. Lawson (Premier and Attorney-General), Mr. Hutchinson (Education and Forests), Mr. A. Robinson (Public Works), Mr. Barnes (Railways and Mines)—and one honorary Minister, Mr. Kendell. The four remaining salaried offices go to the Bowser Party, which also secured three honorary Ministers. Mr. Bowser becomes Chief Secretary and Minister of Health, Mr. McPherson remains Treasurer, Mr. Clarke keeps his post as Minister for Lands and Water Supply, and Mr. Oman continues in charge of the Agricultural Department. The honorary Ministers being Mr. McWhae, Mr. Robertson and Mr. Campbell. The reunited Liberal party strongly supports the new Government, and its tenure of office during the ordinary life of Parliament seems certain. After passing the estimates and various lesser Bills, Parliament completed a very short session. One of the first acts of the new Ministry was to reduce railway freights by 5 per cent.

TO PREVENT FUTURE WARS.

I.—ABOLISH FEAR.

Practically all the leaders of both groups of belligerents have expressed their approval of the formation of some sort of League of Nations, after the war, which will be charged with the task of settling international grievances, and preventing the outbreak of further wars. In fact, looking through the speeches and declarations of British, French, American, German and Austrian statesmen one finds a most remarkable agreement on this particular point. This is the more surprising in view of the great differences in almost all others. The only exception—I had almost said notable exception—is Sir Edward Carson, who will have none of it. But apart from his, no discordant voice is heard amongst the chorus of approval of the idea.

But whilst all admit the need of a League of Nations or Peoples, none of these statesmen ventures to suggest how it is to be formed, what powers it is to have, and in what special way it is to end wars. Naturally they cannot go into details yet, but their general adherence to the principle is highly important. The average attitude of the man in the street towards such a League, and in fact towards any scheme for ending war, is that nothing can prevent nations fighting amongst themselves, that wars have always taken place, and will continue to occur no matter what safeguards may have been erected. The Hague Conference, he says, created an elaborate code of rules for the conduct of war, and behold the belligerents have regarded them not at all. Draw up a beautiful plan for arbitrating everything, have your judges and your International Courts, but the moment any strong nation wants anything it will ignore the lot and plunge into war with another from which it thinks it can wrest what it desires. There is, of course,

a great deal in that contention, it would undoubtedly prove true.

Obviously the League of Nations suggested must be strong enough to enforce its decisions, must be able to crush any Power which went to war against its orders. A strong international police force is recommended by some, but that would be of little avail if the various nations were allowed to continue arming themselves after this war as they did before it. What would be the use of an International Police against Germany, for instance? We see her to-day fighting the world, and thus far with only too great success. The whole available armies and navies of the other nations in the suggested league would prove inadequate to overcome her if she decided to break the peace. Alone an international police force is of little use: there must also be great reduction of armaments. It is noteworthy that the most cordial approval of such reduction thus far has come from the statesmen of the Central Powers. Without such reduction no schemes to avoid war by the employment of common sense will succeed. This seems to me so clear that to my mind the reduction or abolition of armaments is the crux of the whole position. Permit nations to continue piling these up and further wars are inevitable, no matter what treaties are made, what elaborate and efficient means of arbitration are provided.

This brings us at once to the question whether disarmament is even remotely possible. If it is not, then the best we can try for is to get all the nations to agree to some scheme for lubricating international machinery so as to avoid friction as much as possible. Until we know what is possible in the matter of reducing the huge armies and navies of the Powers, we can

adopt no satisfactory plan for a League of Nations or anything else. Never, we are told, will Great Britain agree to limit her fleet or Germany consent to curtail her army, and when we seek the reason we find that it is because if Germany had no army and Britain no fleet they would be at once gobbled up by some other envious Power. When we get right down to it we find that the reason why the nations armed themselves to the teeth was because they were *afraid*, horribly and mortally scared.

The international position is closely similar to the national situation in every country eight, ten or more centuries ago. Practically every man went armed, for only by his individual strength and skill in arms could he be sure of preserving himself from harm. He did not perfect himself in the use of sword and spear in order to sally forth and slay his neighbour, but to be able to take care of himself in a brawl or when attacked by some footpad or robber. It is true, of course, that skill in arms, the knowledge that he was stronger than his neighbour not infrequently made of the man who originally armed to defend himself, a formidable aggressor. Finding himself possessed of the means of improving his position by strife, he got busy and strove. But originally he armed because he was *afraid*, feared that he might be killed. Consequently he continued to bear arms until that fear was removed, and it was not dispelled until the community wherein he dwelt had undertaken to protect him, and had forced him to settle his private quarrels by means of arbitration in a court of law.

It took a long time before the community could prevail upon him to give up his weapons altogether and trust wholly to it for protection and justice, and those members of the community who did not want justice, but desired to augment their fortunes by wicked means and force rebelled against communal control altogether. Public opinion in the end forced them to submit, many being hanged, though, before the desired frame of mind was induced. Once the fear for his own skin had been banished, the disarmament of the individual was easy. If,

then, the fear of nations could be dispelled, limitation of armaments would immediately follow. We assume that every nation, but our own, is armed for aggression whereas in reality all are armed for *fear*. Our mighty fleet is regarded throughout our Empire, not as a weapon of offence, but of defence. Only if we have command of the sea can we be sure that our vast possessions will not be reft from us by some envious neighbour. If we know that such suspected neighbours were powerless to harm us we would quickly reduce our fleet and spend as small a sum as possible on maintaining a weapon for which there could be no use save for offence—which we know is far from our thoughts.

During the last decade British statesmen, amongst them Lloyd George, have frankly admitted that Germany was obliged to maintain a great army, for she was between two strong Powers, open to attack on two sides. If, however, all danger of attack disappeared, the ever-present fear would be dispelled and the army would quickly be limited in size. We are told, of course, that we must maintain our armaments, as Germany is an aggressive Power who seeks to grab territory all the time; but we have only to glance back at the history of the last few years to realise that the same thing was said against other countries, and we were exhorted to pile up armies and fleets so that we could defend ourselves against the encroachments of Russia or France. It is just exactly twenty years ago this month that we were on the eve of war with France because we felt sure the French were filching territories from us in West Africa, where, so our papers assured us, "they were deliberately and systematically taking advantage of our good nature and our indifference to the selavage of our Empire to crowd us out of country our right to which even their map makers had acknowledged," and so on and so forth. Eighteen months later Marchand, after a journey right across Africa, suddenly appeared at Fashoda, on the Nile, beating Kitchener to the place by a few days. I happened to be in Europe at the time, and

found it on the tip toe of excitement, certain that war between France and England was inevitable—and the things which were said!

I only mention these two points to show how quickly one nation's opinion of another can change. In 1900 our *bête noir* was France. For her we kept up a mighty fleet and made schemes for increasing our army. In 1910 France was our best friend, and no one dreamed of talking about her as an aggressive Power. In the early years of this century our papers poured the vials of their wrath on the Boers, and one is staggered to-day, on looking back through the files, to read what shocking things were put in print. To-day the Boers are our brothers, and one of the generals who fought most bitterly against us is a member of the Supreme War Council of the Empire. In international affairs the friend of to-day is the enemy of to-morrow, and the enemy of to-day the friend of yesterday; but always every Power goes about in deadly fear of some other, and only if that *fear* is finally abolished can peace ever reign permanently in the world.

If the people of the world as a result of this terrible struggle decided to trust their defence to some central authority, agreed to adopt the universal custom of private life and settle their disputes not with the sword but in a court of law, then would have come that time so splendidly depicted by Tennyson.

When the war-drum throb'd no longer, and
the battle flags were furled,
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of
the world,

There the common sense of most shall hold
a fretful realm in awe,
And the kindly earth shall slumber, lapt in
universal law.

If, however, great reduction in armaments does not take place, fear and mistrust will continue, and inevitably the heaped-up armies and navies would be used. All that a League of (heavily-armed) Nations could hope to do would be to make it more difficult for any Power to plunge into war.

The various schemes that have been put forward for insuring permanent peace may be roughly divided into two groups. Those which aim at disarmament and those which would merely attempt to make going to war less easy. Before going on to the proposals for the formation of Leagues of Nations which have been made, it is perhaps well to consider for a moment what chance there

is of any of the present belligerents agreeing to curtail their armaments. We have been again and again assured that we must fight on until Germany is smashed, otherwise she will set to work and get ready for a future trial of strength, and we, in turn, would be compelled to greatly increase our armies and our navies to be ready to meet the future attack. On the other hand we are told—by no less a person that President Wilson—that "Victory would mean a peace forced upon the loser—a victor's terms imposed upon the vanquished. It would be accepted in humiliation, under duress, at an intolerable sacrifice, and would leave a sting of resentment—a bitter memory upon which the terms of peace would rest, but only as upon a quicksand." The President considers, that is to say, that a vanquished Germany would get ready for a further struggle just as a vanquished Prussia got ready in Napoleon's day.

I have always held that a negotiated peace is the only possible end to this struggle, and only if it is ended by negotiations, in which there is give and take, can I imagine the avoidance of the creation of a position such as the President describes. Limitation of armaments might be arranged at a negotiated peace conference; it could hardly be arranged at any other. Disarmament might be forced on the loser, but the victors would be obliged to add to their armaments to compel this disarmament, and have to remain permanently armed to prevent the defeated nations from organising and preparing themselves for a further struggle.

A good deal has been said about the need for reduction of armaments after the war, but the only statesmen who have seriously discussed it are President Wilson and Count Czernin. The former, in his famous peace speech, made to the Senate shortly before America entered the war, urged the formation of a League of Peace, founded on equality of rights and based on a plan of independent and united autonomy with full freedom of development for small nations, *freedom of the seas*, and *limitation of armaments*. The latter in a speech in October last, dealt at length with the imperative need for reduction of armaments after the war is over. Amongst other things he said:—

This war has taught us that we must reckon on a great increase in former armaments. With unrestricted armaments the nations would be compelled to increase everything tenfold and the military esti-

mates of the Great Powers would amount to billions. That is impossible; it would mean complete ruin. To return to the armament status of 1914 would be a great reduction, but there would be no meaning in not going further, and actually disarming. Hence complete disarmament is the only issue from the difficulty. Gigantic fleets will have no further purpose when the nations of the world guarantee the freedom of the seas, and land armies will be reduced to the level required for the maintenance of internal order. Every state will have to give up something of its independence for the purpose of insuring the world peace.

At first I viewed with ever growing alarm the gigantic expenditure of the nations on this terrible struggle. I do so no longer, for I am convinced that the interest bills which will have to be met in each and every country which has been engaged in war will be so colossal that all other expenditure will have to be rigorously cut down. These huge war loans will, I am certain, prove the strongest of all arguments in favour of disarmament. As Count Czernin truly says, if we are not going to limit armaments at all, it means that we will have to maintain armies and fleets at an immensely higher standard than before the war. If we agree to reduce to the 1914 level it will be so very far below what nations armed to the teeth require that we might as well disarm altogether. In 1913 Great Britain spent £77,000,000 on army and navy, France spent £73,000,000, Russia £92,000,000, Austria £31,500,000, and Germany £91,000,000. Not one of these Powers could get what the present war has shown us to be required in the armament line for twice the above expenditure. If reduction is out of the question Great Britain must contemplate an expenditure of over £150,000,000 annually, and the other nations would have to bear a proportionate burden. If it is mutually agreed to return to the 1914 standard it might just as well be agreed to set a far lower one, and thus pay the interest for half, at any rate, of the war loans, with money which otherwise would have to go for army and navy.

As I have already emphasised, so long as mutual fear exists there can be no disarmament. There can be no question, of course, that the two Powers least likely to agree to reduction of armaments are Great Britain and Germany. The former realises that the vast territories she has acquired all over the world, territories often sparsely peopled and undeveloped, are a standing temptation to any strong Power whose expansion

is everywhere circumscribed owing to the fact that the world had been already parcelled out when it came on the scene. To defend these territories she needs a great fleet as long as covetous Powers are about. Germany, on the other hand, expanding rapidly, with a population far larger than that of the British Isles, is not contented, feels that in the general sharing out of the habitable places of the earth she has been unfairly treated, owing to her late arrival into nationhood, and seeks to penetrate into decadent lands, despite the strong disapproval of Powers already owning huge overseas possessions. It is clear now that nothing save utter defeat will stop Germany from carrying out her schemes of peaceful penetration in Asia Minor, Persia and Russia. Secure of a great sphere of expansion in the Near East, the land hunger of the latest arrival amongst the Great Powers will be appeased, and mutual reduction of armaments has more hope of being arranged at the Peace Conference than might at first seem possible.

The three best known schemes for international leagues after the war are the following: 1. *The League to Enforce Peace*. 2. *The League of Nations Society*. 3. *The League to Abolish War*. The two first aim at the postponement of hostilities, believe that practically all disputes can be settled if impartially enquired into; the last advocates disarmament—the abolition of the cause of fear amongst the nations. Long ago, in 1898 to be exact, my father published a booklet entitled *Always Arbitrate Before You Fight*. The occasion of his writing was the threat of war with France over the correct arrangement of some unexplored back blocks in Central Africa, and the danger of war between the United States and Spain over the blowing up of the American battleship *Maine* in Havana harbour. After these last two had fought, by the way, the hull of the ship was raised, and it was found that the disaster was due not to a Spanish mine or torpedo, but to an internal explosion! The main contention in the booklet in question was that some international arbitrator or tribunal should be created to whom all questions should be submitted *before* nations were allowed to draw the sword.

They might fight afterwards if they pleased if they did not like the award, and cared to face the odium of going to war against the decision of an impartial umpire—but what a gain it would be if it were recognised as part of the universal usage of civilised nations, that an appeal to some

such tribunal must be made before war could be lawfully waged on land or sea. Even if it did nothing else it would afford a chance for the question of peace or war to be decided by the sober second thoughts of the nation at large instead of allowing the die to be cast by an excited populace in the first moment of passion.

A year later, after a three months' tour of the capitals of Europe, my father published a book entitled *The United States of Europe*, in which he urged the creation of a League of European Nations. At the two Hague Conferences and on innumerable other occasions he advocated the substitution of law for force in international affairs. He wrote on one occasion:—

The need (for some international tribunal) is urgent. The anarchy is hopeless. War may break out at any time, and no provision whatever is made or is at present conceivable, whereby the rest of the world can arrest even for a little season a catastrophe which would effect the whole human race. The most elaborate precautions are taken in law and constitutions to prevent any individual or even any representative assembly, inflicting wanton injury upon anybody, either by depriving them of their property or of sacrificing their lives. But when the danger threatens not individuals, but whole communities, when rapine and murder are to be committed by wholesale and not by retail, then it seemeth to surpass the wit of man to devise even the slenderest security which might give the nations a chance to avoid the menaced doom. It is as if a great city were incapable of organising a fire brigade. The forces that make for war are multifarious enough. In every capital newspapers are busy eagerly fanning the smouldering spark into flame. But where—oh, where are we to look for any serious effort to provide even so much as an opportunity for the voice of truth and reason to make

itself heard before all sounds are silenced by the thunder of cannon?

I accompanied my father round Europe, and assisted him in compiling his book, *The United States of Europe*. At the second Hague Conference, for three months I helped him bring out a daily paper, the object of which was to popularise the efforts which were being made to induce the nations to arbitrate rather than fight, and I have long been closely associated with the public and diplomatic efforts that have been made to devise some means for eliminating the risk of war. The net result of all my experience is a conviction that, so long as the nations go about armed to the teeth, war is certain. Only by inducing the nations to give up their weapons, as long ago individuals were induced to abandon the wearing of swords, can war be permanently abolished. But unless you, at the same time create a powerful international police force, mere reduction of armaments is useless. If you took a man's sword away and did not afford him protection against a robber who rushed at him with a bludgeon, it was inevitable that the man would speedily possess himself of a sword again. Once the nations laid down their arms it would be absolutely necessary to have some strong force which would prevent any of them suddenly arming themselves and attacking a defenceless neighbour.

(To be continued.)

The next article will describe the various schemes that have been devised for a "League of Nations."

THE SUBMARINE MENACE.

The anxiously awaited statement of the First Lord of the Admiralty, Sir Eric Geddes, concerning the shipping position, was made last week. It was anticipated that it would dispel the general disquiet which the continued sinkings had begun to excite. The statement, as originally cabled out here, was entirely misleading, but later messages elucidated it somewhat. Sir Eric said that the net losses of Great Britain, since the war began totalled only 2,750,000 tons, reckoning only those mer-

chant ships over 1600 tons which had gone to the bottom. This figure was arrived at by taking the total tonnage of all the 1600-ton ships sunk, and deducting therefrom the tonnage of new ships of this size built since the outbreak of war, and also the tonnage of enemy ships over 1600 taken over or captured. Presumably the ships lost in the ordinary way—by wreck and stress of weather, were not included—but those sunk by the *Emden*, the *Königsberg*,

the *Mocaw*, the *See-Adler* and the *Wolf* are reckoned in.

The figures of the First Lord have been subject to considerable criticism, *The Daily Telegraph*, for instance, stating that he makes no allowance for the many ships undergoing repairs, which are laid up for weeks, and further, that he was not justified in comparing the net losses with the total British pre-war merchant tonnage, as at least half of this had been requisitioned for military and naval purposes, and was not therefore available for carrying food for the Allies. Instead of a net reduction of 20 per cent. by sinkings, as announced by Sir Eric, the actual reduction, according to *The Daily Telegraph*, is 40 per cent. of the total shipping available for supplying the needs of the civil population. This criticism would certainly seem justified, as also is that made by other papers which assert that the statement was more a defence of the Admiralty than a rousing call to the shipyard workers to do their utmost.

Of the many figures given, or said to have been given, by the First Lord, the following are the most intelligible:—

	British Tonnage.	Other Tonnage.	Total Tons.
Total losses since war began	7,079,000	4,750,000	11,829,000
New construction	3,031,000	3,500,000	6,531,000
Enemy tonnage taken	780,000	1,800,000	2,580,000
Net gain since the war began		550,000	--
Net loss since war began	3,268,000	—	2,718,000

It is difficult to understand why, in the face of these figures, there should be any uneasiness at all concerning the ability of our merchant ships to keep Allied peoples supplied with all the food they need, for, after all, would a loss of 2,700,000 or even 3,000,000 tons seriously diminish the carrying tonnage of the world? Yet no one questions for a moment that it is gravely curtailed, and that the carrying of supplies across the water is a matter of the greatest difficulty, whilst the admitted scarcity of all manner of necessary food supplies in Great Britain, France and Italy is laid to the door of lack of tonnage. The high price of coal is attributed to inability to get tonnage. The food queues were said to be due to the lack of tonnage, and so on and so forth. Lack of tonnage there is; that is universally admitted. Lloyd George told the Americans that the three most vital things they could supply the Allies with were ships, more ships, and still more ships. Yet we now learn that there are

actually only 3,000,000 fewer tons afloat to-day than when the war began. It seems incredible!

We are told, perhaps, that the shortage in tonnage is due to the entire withdrawal of enemy shipping which formerly carried much of the world's produce, but that withdrawal occurred in August, 1914, and there was no appreciable lack of ships in 1915. By the middle of 1916 we may assume that most of the ships needed by the naval and military authorities had been requisitioned; but at the end of 1916 there was no spectre of starvation owing to lack of tonnage. Why, then, the present shortage? It can only be explained by supposing that the demands of the army and navy have been very great during 1917, and have monopolised a far greater tonnage than in 1916, or that the losses amongst these requisitioned ships have been heavy, and that the merchant marine has been called on to replace them. The latter would seem to be the most probable assumption.

Sir Eric Geddes lumped all the figures together for the whole war period, mentioning merely that the total sinking for 1917—British, Allied and Neutral—was 6,000,000 tons. Here, though, we have perhaps the key which will unlock the obscure situation to us. Official shipbuilding figures to the end of 1916 tell us that since the war started 4,300,000 tons had been built in the world, excluding Germany and Austria. Sir Eric tells us that since August, 1914, to the end of December, 1917, the total tonnage built was 6,531,000 tons, which shows that some 2,230,000 tons were built in 1917, during which time 6,000,000 tons were sunk. Had it not been for the commandeering of the German ships in American harbours—512,000 tons—we would have been almost 4,000,000 tons to the bad in 1917. Actually, assuming the need for replacing sunk requisitioned ships, the world's supply-carrying fleet was probably reduced by more than 4,000,000 tons during the twelve months which ended on December 31st last. Obviously this is the proper way to look at the situation. We should not comfort ourselves by saying that, after all, we are but 2,700,000 tons worse off to-day than in 1914, but should face the fact that we are 4,000,000 tons worse off than we were at the end of 1916, when the danger of serious interference with the supply of food for the people was first felt to be a real menace.

We cannot requisition any more ships, for we have now got practically all the enemy vessels which sought safety in neutral harbours at the outbreak of war. The Dutch vessels taken over do not, of course, increase the world tonnage at all. They have been freight carriers all the time. They are merely changing hands. As set forth by Sir Eric Geddes, the commandeering of enemy ships bettered our position by 2,580,000 tons. No further enemy tonnage will help to augment our merchant fleet. We may take it as almost certain that Holland, the greatest neutral shipbuilder, will build no more vessels which may fall into our hands if sent to sea, and that instead of making some 250,000 tons available in 1918, will keep all she does build in her home harbours. The same will probably be true of Sweden, Denmark, Norway and Spain, though lack of materials will probably end shipbuilding altogether in these countries. The four together launched ships with a tonnage of 120,000 in 1916. This addition cannot be counted on in 1918. That leaves Great Britain, America, Japan, France and Italy.

France's output has steadily diminished from 176,000 tons in 1913 to 38,000 tons in 1916, and is likely to be still less in 1918. Italy, on the other hand, has passed her pre-war production of 50,000, building 63,000 in 1916, but cost of coal is likely to seriously handicap her yards this year. Japan has made enormous strides in shipbuilding, turning out 232,000 tons in 1916, almost four times as much as in 1913. If she overcomes her present trouble in getting steel, her production should be at least 250,000 tons this year. Last year the American yards turned out 800,000 tons, and this year they should do much better; but if they reach 2,000,000 tons it will be a marvellous performance. Last year Great Britain built 1,200,000 tons, and will hardly do more this, handicapped as she is by the poor production of January and February, admitted in Parliament to have been only some 110,000 tons of ships over 1600 tons; whereas to produce the 3,000,000 tons a year aimed at, at least 500,000 should have been built in those two months. At the 55,000 tons a month average only 700,000 tons would be produced during 1918. Assuming, however, that this bad lee-way is made up, Sir Eric tells us that "the difficulties were gradually being overcome, and he believed the problem was in a fair way to solution." British shipyards should at least double

their monthly output, and produce a tonnage equal to that of 1917, namely 1,200,000. But only from Great Britain, the United States and Japan can new shipping be expected, and if our estimates prove correct the total tonnage of ships built in 1918 would be $2,000,000 + 1,200,000 + 250,000 = 3,450,000$

We have now some guide as to what the sinkings of this year have been, and are likely to be, for the First Lord stated definitely that the British losses during the last quarter of 1917 equalled 261,000 tons monthly, that is to say, 783,000 tons for the period. During October, November and December the announced number of British merchantmen over 1600 tons sunk was 149, and under that tonnage was 53. Just about a year ago, readers will remember, I worked out a formula which enabled a rough estimate to be made of the tonnage lost from the published weekly lists of numbers of ships sunk. This formula was found by taking all the ships over 1600 tons sunk since the beginning of the war, adding up their total tonnage—this was given, it will be remembered, until February 18th, 1917, when unrestricted submarining began—and dividing the tonnage by the number of ships sunk. In order that the average might not be overweighted, monster ships, like the *Lusitania* and *Britannic*, were omitted from the calculation altogether. The result showed that the average tonnage of ships over 1600 which had been sunk during 1915, 1916, and two months of 1917 was 3400. A similar calculation gave the average tonnage of ships under 1600 tons as 1200. If we apply this formula to the ships sunk during the last quarter of 1917, we get a total tonnage lost of 570,200, which is over 200,000 less than what Sir Eric says it actually was.

This either proves our formula wrong, or means that he was giving the total shipping losses, not merely those of Britain, or that he included all the British losses not only cargo carrying ships, concerning which the weekly details are given. It is fairly easy to test the accuracy of my formula now that we have definite figures of lost tonnage to go on. Sir Eric states that the total loss of British shipping since the outbreak of war to the end of 1917 was 7,079,000 tons. We know from official announcements that up to the time unrestricted submarining began the British tonnage sunk was 3,750,000, so that obviously

between February 18th, 1917, and December 31st, 1917, the enemy sunk in one way and another 3,329,000 tons. During that period the weekly reports announced that 702 ships over 1600 tons were sunk, and 258 under that tonnage. Applying my formula, the total loss according to it would be $(702 \times 3,400 = 2,386,000) + (258 \times 1,200 = 309,600)$, altogether 2,695,600 tons. Actually, however, the losses were 632,600 tons more than this.

It does not follow that the formula is wrong in itself, but it is obvious that, on the figures of sinkings given, it is too low. This may be due to the inclusion of ships in the complete totals omitted altogether in the weekly lists. To get an accurate idea of the tonnage sunk, then the formula must be altered to cover such a contingency. If instead of taking the average to be 3,100 we place it at 4,300 tons, we make it agree with the figures given by the First Lord. Multiplying the 702 large ships sunk by 4,300, we get a tonnage of 3,018,600 and adding to this the smaller ships, we get a total tonnage of 3,327,600, which almost exactly tallies with the official figures of sinkings since February 18th, viz., 3,329,000. Applying this new formula to the figures for the last quarter of 1917, we get a total of 714,300 tons lost, still 70,000 tons below the official figure, but near enough to it to prove that in giving it Sir Eric Geddes referred to British losses only. During the first five weeks of this year 100 British ships over 1600 tons were sunk, and 37 under. That is about 50 large ships and 18 small per month. During the last quarter of 1917 the average was 49 large and 17 small per month. We may assume, therefore, that if, as the First Lord tells us, the British losses during October, November and December, 1917, were 783,000 tons, they will be the same for the first quarter of this year, and if that average of sinkings be maintained would total 3,132,000 tons during 1918. To this must be added the tonnage lost by our Allies and the neutrals.

Since the war began, for every 14 British tons sunk, nine other tons have gone to the bottom. Assuming the same proportion obtains during 1918, we may conclude that our Allies and neutrals will lose just over 2,000,000 tons bringing the total world shipping loss to 5,000,000 in 1918, or 1,000,000 tons less than in 1917.

It would seem, therefore, if we are to overtake sinking by ship-building, Allied

yards will have to produce at least 1,500,000 tons more this year than forecasts suggest they can. In this connection, though, we have to remember that the Americans ought to get into their stride this year, and providing enough skilled workers can be found, and slowing down and strikes be avoided, might quite possibly build all the extra tonnage needed in their shipyards. But we must not forget that the transporting of millions of American soldiers across the Atlantic and their maintenance in France is going to be an immensely heavy drain on the Allied merchant marine. It is estimated that it will permanently tie up at least 500,000 tons, so that actually Allied shipyards this year ought to produce well over 2,000,000 tons more than seems at the moment possible, must turn out a minimum of 5,500,000 tons, if sinkings are to be replaced, and the American army is to be provided for.

The First Lord did not emphasize the means by which the Allies have been able to get tonnage, but it is worth looking into this because we find that the sources drawn on to make good losses during 1917 are now exhausted, and that therefore we will have to rely almost entirely upon ship-building to replace losses this year. When America came in we got 512,000 tons of enemy shipping, and at least an equal amount of tonnage of Great Lakes shipping, which was brought to the Atlantic by canal and the St. Lawrence. In addition the entire American sea going fleet was commandeered by the President for the feeding of the Allies or the transport of troops. The incoming of the United States, that is to say, gave us at least 1,500,000 tons of shipping we could not otherwise have secured. By no happy circumstances can we look for a similar addition in 1918. The only neutral which had much enemy shipping in its harbours was Brazil, and this seems to have been already commandeered. We may induce still neutral States to give up sheltering enemy ships; but all together they would total less than 200,000 tons, probably little over 100,000 tons. During 1917 the majority of ships which trade on our coasts and carry supplies throughout the Southern Hemisphere were withdrawn and pressed into the task of transporting supplies across the Atlantic. Further coming out of shipping this year will be almost impossible. All this means that everything does in truth depend upon the shipwright. If he fails us this year the German hope may yet be realised.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns.

The English papers at the turn of the year all expressed a hope that 1918 would see the end of the war. *John Bull*, which has never hesitated to criticise the conduct of the war, suggests that the mistakes of 1917 will all be wiped out in 1918, whilst *The National News* shows John Bull telling Father Time that he fights on our side. Practically every cartoon paper received in Australia sets out the same hope.

The American papers, however, do not seem to think it possible that the struggle can terminate so soon, and the attitude taken follows that expressed in *The Philadelphia Press*, reproduced on this page.

The Russian situation still claims foremost attention, and the most severe on the Russians are the Muscovite cartoonists

themselves. The artist of *The Novy Satirikon* makes game of the opportunists who alter their opinions with every change of government. Regular "Vicars of Bray."

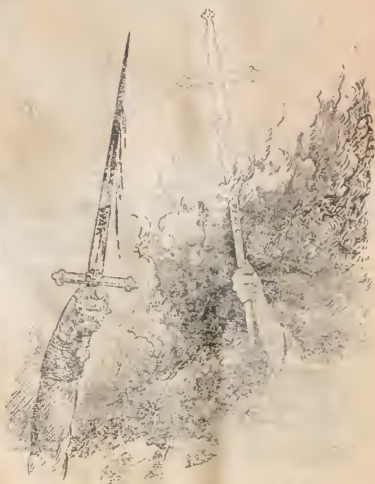
The Polish *Mucha* has a picture in which the Bolshevik asks the Kaiser where he shall carry the frontier post to. It is some-



[John Bull.] [London.
THE GOSPEL ACCORDING TO JOHN.



[National News.] [London.
OUR OLDEST ALLY.
GENERAL BULL TO GUNNER TIME: "I hope that one will finish the job."



[Philadelphia.
Press.] THE REALITY AND THE DREAM.



Nory Satirikov.]

[Petrograd.

THE CHAMELEON.

OPPORTUNIST (in the Korniloff days): "Better hang up Korniloff now. If he goes under, we can put Kerensky back again."



Mucha.]

[Moscow.

BOLSHEVIK: "Where shall I carry this frontier post to?"

WILHELM: "Carry it some hundreds of versts further inland."



L'Asino.]

[Dayton.

IT WOULD BE WORTH A SCORE OF VICTORIES IN ITALY.



L'Asino.]

[Rome.

ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT.

THE GERMAN TO THE RUSSIAN EXTREMIST: "Thanks for the help you are giving our army--in Italy."



Westminster Gazette.]

[London.

THE KAISER'S IDEA OF TROTSKY.

what amazing that in censor-ridden Russia such a cartoon was ever allowed to see the light.

The Italian papers show themselves bitter against the Russians, whose defection they consider cost Italy Venetia and appalling losses of men, guns and treasure.



The People.]

[London.

A FATAL FRIENDSHIP.

Little Red Riding Hood up to date.



Novy Satirikon.]

[Petrograd.

"Where are those people running to?"

"To the front."

"Why?"

"Because there's no shooting there; no enemy is to be seen. It is the only peaceful part in Russia."

The News, of Dayton, Ohio, well hits off the real position. F.C.G. has an inimicable little cartoon on the Kaiser's idea of Trotsky, whilst The People shows Russia as Red Riding Hood.

The Novy Satirikon lives up to its reputation of sarcasm in its cartoon, showing the people rushing to the front for safety.

The Paris Le Rire well illustrates the position when it suggests that success depends as much on the man behind the soldier as on the soldier himself.



Le Rire.]

[Paris.

THE FRONT, AND BEHIND IT.

CIVILIAN: "Russia has abandoned us. Now indeed the poilus must hold on."

SOLDIER: "That is true, but it is also necessary that the civilians should hold on, too."



[Wall Street Journal.]

[New York.]

I HATE TO SEE YOU GO, BUT I'M PROUD
YOU'RE GOING."

The Americans are naturally very busy dealing with their particular section of the conflict. The cartoonists are very severe



[Press.]

[Philadelphia.]

NOW BATTING FOR RUSSIA.

indeed on the profiteer, as instance the drawings from *The Plain Dealer* and *The Tribune*, herewith.



[Tribune.]

[New York.]

A BIT OF NATURE STUDY.

Or, Fine Food for the Jacksnipes.



[Plain Dealer.]

[Cleveland]

DON'T YOU KNOW THAT THIS NATION IS
AT WAR?



Call. 3

[New York.

THE SWORD SWALLOWER.

The Ledger, of Philadelphia, is rather astray at the moment, but *The Passing Show*, London, is very much to the point.

The most notable of the other cartoons reproduced is that in *The Ledger*, which shows Civilisation mourning that such things as reprisals are necessary.



Passing Show.]

[London.

NO MORE OF THIS.

The suggestion of *Il 420* that the Jesuits were responsible for the Italian defeat is rather far fetched.



Tribune.]

(New York.

WHAT CHANCE HAS SHE AT THIS RATE?



The Ledger.

[Philadelphia.]

SIXTY MILES FROM WATERLOO



Il 420.] **THE GREAT BOAT.** [Florence.

The barque on which the Germans and Austrians crossed the Isanzo and the Tagliamento was the hat of the Jesuit.

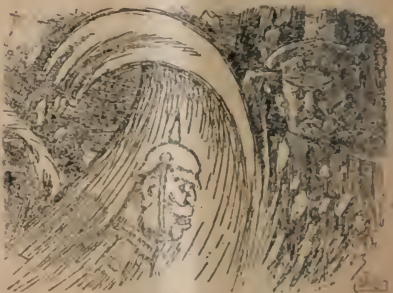


London Opinion.
THE POPULAR ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTOR.

LIEUTENANT: "I am very pleased with you fellows. You have worked well. I will ask the sergeant-major to let you bath that conscientious objector who came in this morning."



John Bull. **THE KAMERADER.** [London.
Hands down, Lansdowne!



THE ROCK OF VICTORY.

"Long waves of men in field grey were seen coming over the rolling ground. The foremost lines were swept by machine gun, rifle and artillery fire, and fell dead and wounded in the grass. Other men came behind them, and fell. Then in the centre they wavered, broke and fled, followed by all our fire. The German dead lie in rows outside our lines."—Mr. Philip Gibbs, on the battle of Cambrai.



The Ledger. **MUST SUCH THINGS BE?** [Philadelphia.



Call. **THE FORTUNES OF WAR.** [New York.

WHERE WILL THE REAL GERMAN BLOW FALL ?

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS.

Mr. Simonds' article on the coming German attack, though written a couple of months ago, has reached Australia at a peculiarly appropriate moment for, even as I write, the first enemy guns are beginning to boom on the western front and the fateful effort seems to be on the eve of commencing. It is gratifying to me to find that this eminent critic shares the view I set out at the beginning of the year, namely, that if indeed the Germans proposed to make one more terrific attempt to smash through in the west, their blow would fall, not between La Fere and the Channel, but would be delivered against the French, and at such spots as would enable them, if successful, to envelope the Verdun army. At the same time, of course, the foe would demonstrate, if need be, to the length of a real drive against the British lines in order to pin our reinforcements there so that the French, unaided, would have to bear the brunt of the stroke on which the Germans counted to win them victory. Military judgment in Britain, Europe and the United States concerning the expected German assault, says Mr. Simonds, is as follows:—

First of all, the Germans have told us that it was coming. They have affirmed that it would be the greatest blow of the war, and they had led their public to believe that a victory was not only possible but assured. Under other circumstances it would be possible to doubt the assertion of the foe. Certainly it will be well to watch events in the Balkans and Italy, as well as Asia Minor. Yet it is clear that only on the West Front can there be a decision, and that victory elsewhere will not win the war for the Germans. Hence the probability of a Western offensive.

Actually the Germans will find themselves in March, 1918, in much the situation they were in two years before, when they made their great bid for victory at Verdun. Then they had disposed of the Russians for months. Now they have put Russia out of the war. Then they had cared for Balkan perils by crushing Serbia. Now they have attended to Italian threats for the time being. Then, as now, they were able to transfer troops from East to West and to concentrate their great munitions resources in the West.

In 1916 Germany struck to avoid the blow that was sure to come when Britain was ready. To-day her offensive must anticipate American participation in the war on a great scale, because when America enters in fact Germany will be for all time put on the defensive through inferiority of numbers. Not to win the war before America arrives is to lose the chance of winning it at all, just as not winning it before Britain was ready would have meant not to win it at all, if Russia had stayed in the war.

Russia's collapse restores something of the situation of 1916. Germany has reserves, she has artillery. Her foes in front of her have no decisive advantage of numbers, if they have any. They cannot attack now, because to attack and to fail might lead to disaster, while to wait is to be assured of American help. If Germany, by striking, breaks France, then Italy will be easily put out of the war and Britain and America will be left to fight the thing out. This would not mean a victory of supreme proportions, for Britain and America will continue to dominate the seas, but it would mean mastery of the continent and leave Germany as Napoleon was after Friedland and Wagram.

Falling short of a decisive victory, the Germans plainly hope that they will produce such exhaustion in the ranks of their enemies that the foe will consent to talk peace and abandon the task of holding on until America gets ready, since America is sure to be a considerably delayed arrival. These are the two stakes of the German gamble: Decisive success with the mastery of the Continent, and the perpetuation of *Mitteluropa*, if the assault have the success which was not realised at the Marne or at Verdun; possible peace by negotiation on reasonably satisfactory terms, if the assault makes material but indecisive progress on the field but uses up the moral and material resources of the French and brings them to a willingness to make peace before America is ready.

Similarly the programme has obvious perils. An attack which does not bring victory fairly speedily, an attack which becomes another Verdun, after the first few days, will unquestionably awaken protest

at home just as Verdun did. The military leaders have told a war-weary public that they can win the war if they are permitted one more try. The people have been partly persuaded and partly dragooned into giving their consent to the campaign. But it will be watched with suspicion, and if it does not produce rapid results it may lead to a change of popular sentiment and a far more serious crisis than Germany experienced just before Russia collapsed last year.

Germany has her chance to win the war again. It is not as good as the chance she had at the Marne. It is not nearly as good as the chance she had at Verdun, but it is a chance. She is, in all human probability, planning to take it and to make the greatest military venture of human history, as great in this world war as was Napoleon's campaign at Moscow, in his day. And Moscow had similar stakes. Germany can attack, she must attack, but to attack and fail means approximate ruin.

Will Germany attack the British line or the French? On this point British and French writers are agreed. Conceivably Germany will attack on both fronts, as Haig and Nivelle made joint attacks last spring, but even in this case all agree that the weight of the blow will fall on France.

The reasons are simple. Britain has had heavy losses. Her man-power is beginning to feel the strain, but she has had no such test and loss as France, and her numbers are not actually declining, as are the French. She can still repair great wastage. It is doubtful if the French can. Since German losses are far greater in proportion, as well as in aggregate, than the British, to attack Britain would be to attack a relatively fresh opponent, who, in any event, would emerge from the war with less serious losses. And since Britain's losses are smaller than France's, the strain on the civil population is less and the chance of a break in morale behind the lines smaller.

Germany will attack France in 1918, as she did in 1916, most observers assert, because she believes France is bled white, because she sees in political disturbances within France signs of a breakdown. Granted that the French army might hold, as it always has so far, and its morale was concededly as high as ever in the recent Battle of Malmaison on the Aisne, the Germans calculate that the nerve of the politicians behind might crumble.

It is all very simple, very brutal, and very German. You select the weaker antagonist and you beat him up. France, by reason of her resistance and her sacrifices, because she has been invaded and ravaged, is weaker than Britain, and therefore the German is selecting France and will attack the French lines. He always believed the French a decadent people. He has never ceased to murmur "poor France" since the war began. Not even the Marne nor Verdun have shaken this original view, and he is planning to prove it to be correct this time, having proven it false in 1914 and 1916.

Now granted that the Germans attack the French, the British will have to attack the Germans. Sir Douglas Haig offered to do this in 1916 at the Verdun time and Joffre declined the aid proffered because the British army was unready. It is ready now, but it will have to attack under the compulsion of the foe, and when he is expecting the attack and ready for it. We had just such another campaign when the Germans were standing on the defensive in the West, and beating the Russians to pieces on the East in the spring, summer and autumn of 1915. Then both the French and the British attacked, first in Artois, about Lens and Arras, and later in both Artois and Champagne in the memorable offensive of September 25th. They failed both times and Russia fell, while Serbia was annihilated.

But a year later, after the Verdun campaign, had been going on for four months, the British, with the French, did attack at the Somme, and Germany had to give up her Verdun venture, as the pressure on the Somme increased in August and September, and finally abandon her Verdun gains, when her numbers began to fail in October and in December.

Unfortunately for the Allies, there seems another possibility. We read of constant destruction of French villages behind the German lines facing the British. It would seem that the Germans may be contemplating a withdrawal, a "strategic" retreat like that of last spring, a retreat from before the British as a concomitant of their attack upon the French. Were this to happen British attack for a considerable period would be quite impossible and Britain would have to remain quiescent or send troops to the French front, which involves enormous difficulties of transport, and of munitions.

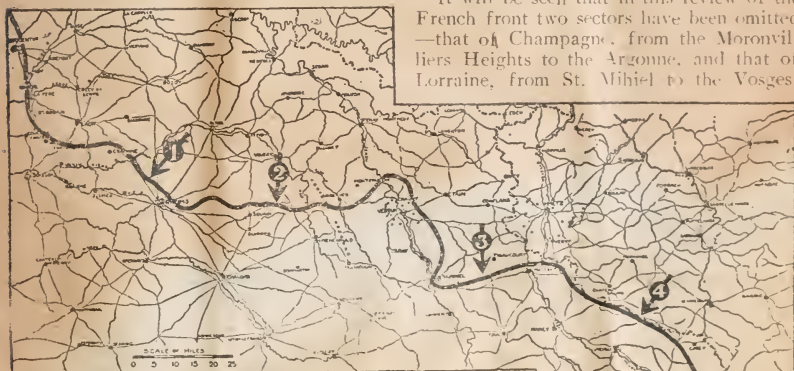
As to the time the Germans will attack, they struck at Verdun on February 21st. The weather was bad and hampered them much, but their necessities were great, for Britain was preparing and was sure to be ready in a few months. But is there such a necessity now? Can we, the United States, be ready in a time so near that Germany will have to shoulder the discomforts of a winter effort, with all its handicaps, to anticipate American intervention? I do not think so. I do not believe the American army will be ready in great numbers before autumn, perhaps not before the spring of 1919, therefore it seems to me unlikely that Germany will move before March or even April, unless her home situation requires prompt action and an earlier decision. With the Verdun precedent in mind, I cannot believe the Germans will strike again in February unless they are impelled by conditions of which we are not informed.

When it comes to a consideration of where on the French front the Germans are likely to strike, one enters the region of pure conjecture. I do not mean to prophesy or to guess, but there are two sectors of the French line which have been indicated to me by French generals as most likely to be subjected to German assault. One is in Champagne, east and west of Rheims.

of the region between the Oise and the eastern end of the Chemin des Dames, where in the recent fighting the French have gained all the high ground. Moreover, when they held only a portion of the high ground in August, they successfully stood off a German assault about Craonne for many days, without losing a foot of ground. Again, just east of Rheims the French hold the Moronvilliers Heights, which Pétain took in the spring. They are a very real obstacle.

Eastward from the Aisne, north of St. Mennehoult to St. Mihiel on the Meuse, the French hold strong positions, including all the famous Verdun hills and forts. Finally, the Vosges from Epinal to Belfort are unsuited for any great offensive, because of the military obstacle they constitute, and any push through the Belfort Gap would be of dubious advantage because of the narrowness of the operable front and the proximity of the Swiss frontier. Conceivably the Germans might undertake a limited offensive to clear out the French troops, occupying a few hundred square miles of Alsatian territory about Thann, but this could have no great importance and would mean the waste of men on a minor venture—a thing the Germans avoid as much as possible.

It will be seen that in this review of the French front two sectors have been omitted—that of Champagne, from the Moronvilliers Heights to the Argonne, and that of Lorraine, from St. Mihiel to the Vosges.



THE FRENCH FRONT

(Sections of the line most likely to be attacked are

(1) between Rheims and Craonne; (2) between Souain and the Aisne; (3) between St. Mihiel and Pont-à-Mousson; (4) between Pont-à-Mousson and Senones)

the other is in Lorraine, east and west of the Moselle River and not far from Toul and Nancy.

Looking at the whole French front from the Oise to Switzerland, it will be noted that there are various sectors in which the conditions do not favour an offensive from the German side. This is especially true

It is in one of these two sectors that Allied critics expect the great German attack to be made. Their reasoning is this: The German hates a battle on parallel lines and always seeks an enveloping movement, if possible. This was true in 1870, when he succeeded at Sedan. It was true in 1914, when he attempted a double enveloping movement from Belgium and Alsace-Lorraine and failed at the Marne. It was true in his great Polish campaign of 1915, when he sought to envelop the Russians in and about Warsaw by movements from East Prussia and Galicia. It was true the other day in Italy, when he sought to envelop the Italians on the lower Isonzo, by a turning movement from the Julian Alps and the Upper Isonzo. He is trying the same thing now, by his movement out of the Trentino and behind the Piave line.

Now the object of these great turning or enveloping movements is to surround and capture an army, or a portion of an army. Sedan is the classical example, and because it made such a profound impression upon military minds the world has been looking for a Sedan all through this war. Mere defeat, on the contrary, only leads to retirement and re-forming of the line.

But if the Germans were able to deliver two great blows on the French front, north and south of Nancy, or east and just west of Rheims, they would promptly come in on the rear and communications of the forces on the lines between the point of attack, and capture or destroy them.

THE SALVAGE OF WAR.

Mr. Isaac F. Marcossou has been contributing a most interesting series of articles to *The Saturday Evening Post* on all manner of matters concerning the war. Not the least valuable of his writings tells of the manner in which waste is now being systematically avoided by the Allied armies. A good deal has been said about the wonderful manner in which what was formerly thrown away has been made to yield millions to the State, and, in view of the enthusiastic praise of the work of the Salvage Corps, it is amusing to look back and read the caustic comments which appeared in our papers over three years ago on the doings of the enemy who were so hard up for copper that they actually paid for shell cases found on the battlefield, collected all old uniforms, disused boots, and so on and so forth! "All this was so much proof, in the eyes of our critics, that the

And the configuration of the French front admits of such movements at these two fronts. It is even possible that the Germans, by a gigantic operation, a double attack, one portion made in the Champagne, west of the Argonne, the other in Lorraine, west of the Moselle, might seek to envelop Verdun. The thing was tried in a way during the Marne campaign, and the Germans have made several tries at the same thing since then, but on no large scale.

Verdun was a battle in parallel lines, it was a frontal attack on a narrow front, which led to a disastrous defeat. The Somme and Third "Wipers" were of the same order, although they led to local advances and minor successes, but only at the Dunajec, in 1915, did a frontal attack end in a supreme success, and this was due to artillery advantages which the German will not have now in the West.

It is perhaps idle to follow this speculation. But I do know that the best-informed Allied observers expect a German attack either in Lorraine or in Champagne, either about Rheims or Nancy, and that they recognise the possibility of a great enveloping movement intended to surround and isolate Verdun. Success on such proportions might win the war, but it is about the most colossal venture one can imagine, and it failed utterly in the Marne campaign, when Germany was far better off than she is today.

enemy were already feeling the effects of our blockade, and were reduced to the desperate method of replenishing their supplies! They bade us take comfort, and assured us that the exhaustion of the foe was near at hand! It took the Allies almost two years before they began to copy the Germans and systematically salvage waste.

Mr. Bonif Law gave particulars recently in the House of Commons concerning the salvage work, and told of the millions which had been saved by a thoroughly organised attempt to do away with waste. But this elimination of avoidable waste, this conservation of everything worth saving, is not a sign of coming exhaustion; rather is it a sign of thrift and common sense. During the early months of the war, says Mr. Marcossou, there was terrific waste.

You had only to go to any one of the mobilisation depots in England when Kitchener's first hundred thousand were being raised to find out that the British Government was looked upon by both the civil and military population as the Lady Bountiful. When battalions moved away from Salisbury Plain, or one of the other great training camps, nearly every house within a radius of fifteen miles was equipped with not only one or more army blankets but army food and stores of all descriptions. When scores of men went home on leave their rations were drawn by the quartermaster sergeants just the same. This food went to the garbage heap or to the camp followers. When an economically disposed officer remonstrated with his men about the ungodly waste the invariable reply was: "The Government is rich and can afford it. Why worry?"

He points out that when, at last, a sense of saving began to be exhibited it was not in England but in France, and not by civilians, but by soldiers. It is not altogether surprising to learn that the Scotch were the first to think of practising it. Instinct makes the Highlander shy at immense waste. His example was contagious, and from the men themselves came the idea of reducing the wicked waste.

Originally only guns and rifles were salvaged. The time-honoured method of disposing of the debris of battle was to assemble it in huge piles and set fire to them. They proved to be costly bonfires. Along in 1915 began the practice of segregating the wreckage of the battlefields and hauling it back to so-called dumps. The uniforms were taken out and sold for rags at £50 a ton. Only the brass buttons were retained. Practically all the other refuse was destroyed.

It was not for some time that it occurred to anyone that if it paid the rag man to give £50 a ton for old uniforms they must be worth a great deal more. The ragman, after this brilliant idea struck someone in authority, got rags only, the uniforms went to Paris to be restored, and to-day the great ordnance depot there employs nearly four thousand women on salvage and saves the British Government in actual money more than £2,500,000 a year!

Such was the beginning of British army salvage on any kind of organised scale. Long before 1915 had rounded out its twelve months of blood and disaster there was a salvage squad in every army unit. The work has grown steadily in scope and energy. To-day, almost before the flame and fury of battle subside these squads are on the battleground gathering up abandoned steel helmets, rifles, belts, haversacks, bayonets, shell cases, unexploded bombs and grenades, clothes; leggings, shoes; in fact, every scrap of stuff that can be transported.

All this equipment is thrown into motor trucks or waggons and hauled behind the lines, where it is sorted out by individual items, loaded into freight cars and sent off to the various bases, to be reclaimed there or sent on to England to be salvaged. Everything must be redeemed or yield the British Government some return as junk or raw material. Only the dead remain where they fall. They alone are the unsalvaged. Formerly all the shoes to be salvaged were shipped to a certain port in the north of France; the uniforms, blankets, kilts, underwear and rubber boots were overhauled in Paris, and most of the ordnance went to England. As the litter of battle grew in volume it became necessary to increase the salvage depots, until there were three shoe-saving stations and half-a-dozen ordnance-reclamation establishments in France and in England. A small army had to be recruited for this work.

Mr. Marcosson gives some particulars of the money saved by the Salvage Corps. The retrieving of clothes is one of the most important of its duties. When we remember that discarded clothes were for long thrown away as useless we get some idea of the gigantic waste there must have been.

The clothing output is in keeping with the production of the other departments. The average number of tunics or jackets overhauled during a six months' period has been approximately 202,000. If John Bull had bought these in the open market at the regulation vocabulary price they would have cost him £145,000. By turning them over to the Government on a basis of half this price the saving is £72,500. With riding breeches and trousers the saving is correspondingly large.

Another huge item of salvage relates to army blankets of all kinds. During one period of six months, 1,555,803 blankets of all kinds were salvaged. Originally they represented a cost to the army of £755,000. Turned in to the Government on usual half-price schedules showed a saving of £377,500. Horse blankets renovated at the rate of 160,000 every six months, and representing a saving of more than £60,000 during that period alone, are merely an incident in the blanket department. Each year of the past two years the Paris depot has salvaged an average of 20,000 pairs of gloves, 60,000 cardigans, 130,000 pairs of woollen drawers, 120,000 shirts, 41,000 towels, and 200,000 woollen undershirts.

Now take a final look at the books of the Paris depot and you discover that after deducting all expenses, including civilian labour, cost of material, coal transport, rent, machinery and wear and tear, the profits for one period of six months were £1,048,000. This average was more than sustained during 1917, when the total estimated saving for the year was about £2,400,000. One unromantic but useful item on the income side of this salvage ledger is rags. Every six months this depot sells not less than 500 tons at £50 a ton.

Had the British Government been obliged to go into the open market and purchase the wool needed to make the millions of woollen garments thus reclaimed there would have been a very appreciable increase in the price of the raw material.

There is a rubber saving factory in Paris. A pair of rubber boots which cost £2 in London are redeemed here for half-a-crown. Last year the depot salvaged 450,000 rubber boots alone. To replace these would have cost almost £1,000,000; they were reclaimed for less than £100,000. In 1916 more than a million pairs of boots were salvaged, and still more were reclaimed in 1917. Saddles which cost up to £20 each to replace were repaired for a few shillings. Packs, haversacks, belts, all formerly wasted when worn or damaged, are now retrieved. A most important salvage work is that of retrieving spare motor car parts. It is done in an immense new concrete factory, which represents the last word in time and labour-saving construction.

When it was decided to salvage damaged automobile parts there rose at once that most persistent of all war questions. Where is the skilled labour to come from? Back in England every available, able-bodied mechanic was geared up to munitions making or some other essential war industry. A long-headed subordinate under the director of transport solved the problem by suggesting that artisan German prisoners be used. Every batch contained at least a few competent workers. He argued that they could earn their board and lodging at a lather much better and render a larger service to their keepers than by building roads or carrying sacks of oats at the supply depots.

The net result was that every prisoner-of-war company underwent a strict investigation. It was an easy task. These companies are all in charge of their own non-commissioned officers, who, with characteristic German efficiency, keep complete records of their men and their pre-war occupations. These N.C.O.'s were asked to choose the most skilled of their colleagues.

When the factory was completed twelve hundred operatives were ready and more than willing to go to work. The big, warm,

well-lighted and perfectly ventilated plant was like heaven after the cold roads, dirty ships and draughty warehouses, in which many of them had toiled since their capture. These prisoners proved to be so capable and so industrious that the British Government now gives them a money allowance of three francs a day. This wage is paid in a special money printed for this purpose. It is legal tender at the army canteens, where the boche prisoners can buy cigarettes, jam, beer and their dearly beloved sausage. Whether it is due to the extra money or to the comfort in which they work one thing is certain—the German prisoners on the salvage task have made good. Most of them are wise enough to realise that, following this unique experience, they will not only be alive but much more efficient when the war ends.

At this German-run shop £5000 worth of spare parts are salvaged every week. When you consider the immense need of automobile and truck spares, the great difficulty in securing them, and the scarcity of steel you can understand how essential this branch of reclamation becomes.

The total value of the salvaged parts is more than half a million sterling. Nothing is allowed to go to waste; even the solder which has been used in the car comes from the scrap heap and is melted down. Space does not permit the telling of the salvage in bakeries, etc., but the following extract gives some idea of what has been done:—

This constant supervision of cooking has not only reduced waste, but enabled the British army to curtail its rations considerably during 1917. Two ounces a day have been pinched off the allowance of breadstuffs except in the cases of soldiers under nineteen, who have the prize appetites of the service. The salt ration has been cut down by a quarter of an ounce a man a day, and a considerable saving has been effected in the consumption of tea. All these items represent a saving in actual cash of approximately £4,000,000 a year, and the economies in this direction have just begun.

Mr. Marcsson says that the vast salvage organisation will be of immense value in demobilisation after the war, and hints that plans have already been carefully made for that mighty conservation of resources that will make Great Britain a new world industrial power.

THE JEWS IN PALESTINE.

A great deal has been said recently about the Jews settling up a Hebrew State again in Palestine. Consequently the article by Israel Cohen in *The Fortnightly Review* on the Development of Zionism, has a special interest. He points out that the Jewish National movement is distinguished from that of other nations in that unlike

all other people the Jews have pursued their nationalistic ideas not in their own ancestral country, but in the countless centres of their dispersion. They have worked for the rehabilitation of their corporate life, not in opposition to the will of the State that had made them exiles, and that has become a mere memory, but with the sym-

pathy and goodwill of nearly every State that has granted them asylum. Further, they have all along avoided the methods of violence, sedition and treason which are commonly regarded as essential factors in every nationalist movement, and have concentrated on peaceful propaganda, practical organisation and political negotiation.

The movement began only twenty years ago, although the Jewish national ideal is nearly twenty centuries old. The man who started Zionism was Theodore Herzl. He was born in 1860, in Budapest, his father being a middle-class merchant. Educated at the Vienna University for the legal profession, he instead adopted the career of a journalist and playwright. It was whilst in Paris as correspondent of the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, at the time of the Dreyfus scandal, that Herzl wrote his memorable pamphlet, "The Jewish State." Until that time he had been engaged solely in recording social changes and political events, and in fashioning light comedies for the stage, but he devoted much time and thought to this, for him, novel task, and it proved to be an epoch-making essay. The publication of the pamphlet was followed by a tremendous ferment throughout communities of both Eastern and Western Jewry. Some people called him mad, but the Jewish world in general considered the scheme he outlined to be quite practicable.

A Zionist Congress was called at Munich, but owing to the opposition of the Jews of that city, met at Basle in 1899. It was followed by energetic propaganda in all parts of the world wherever Jews dwelt in considerable numbers. There was considerable opposition, but this only stimulated the Jewish Nationalists to redouble their efforts. Ten congresses in all have been held. Dr. Herzl regarded as his main task the securing of a charter from the Sultan of Turkey for an autonomous Jewish settlement in Palestine. In order that the Jews might get a footing there and demonstrate to the Turks that they were in earnest, he established a bank under the name of the Jewish Colonial Trust. Although it has no less than 100,000 shareholders, its capital does not exceed £260,000, a fact that affords the clearest indication of the attitude hitherto assumed by Jewish financiers towards the national ideals of their people. Branches of the bank were opened throughout Palestine, and land was purchased. Better housing

accommodation was provided, and Jewish schools were subsidised.

Herzl had several interviews with the late Sultan, Abdul Hamid, and received cordial assurances of goodwill; but he was always blocked, owing to the insufficiency of money at his disposal. Denied the support of the so-called "Princes of Israel," he turned his attention to interesting the Governments of Europe in his ideas, and with conspicuous success. The British Government offered land in the Sinai Peninsula, bordering on Palestine, but the Commission of Inquiry found that there was no water there. Thereupon the British Government offered a large tract in East Africa, but it was found to be quite unsuitable for a Jewish settlement. Strong exception was taken to obtaining any other place of settlement but Palestine, but Herzl urged the acceptance of any offer of land as a measure of emergency in view of the terrible misery that faced the Jewish people. Herzl died suddenly in 1904, at the early age of 44, a martyr to his own devotion. In eight brief years he had knit together the scattered communities of Israel for a common purpose, and had taught them the inevitable lesson of self-rule.

After his death the leadership of the movement was entrusted to his friend Wolffsohn, a native of a Russian village, who had become a prosperous merchant in Cologne. During the six years of his administration he greatly consolidated the movement. Of the five members of the Central Executive which was finally moved to Berlin, four were Russians, and this is a faithful reflection of the great proportion of Russian Jews in the Zionist movement. The failure of the East African scheme brought back attention to Palestine, and in 1907 it was resolved to promote agricultural, industrial and intellectual life there, so as to strengthen the Jewish position in the country and to convince the Turkish Government of the great value of the Jews' colonising ability. Much was done to promote settlement and start industries with the consent of the Turks.

Since the outbreak of the war Zionist activities in Palestine have been brought to a standstill. The Turks proved very hostile, Zionist institutions were closed, and Zionist officials were either imprisoned or disbanded. Those found in possession of the artistic stamps—mere tokens—of the Jewish National Fund, were threatened with death. The colonies at Jaffa and in some other places were forcibly evacuated.

The Zionists persevered, however, and moved their central office to the neutral city of Copenhagen. Before the British Government made its recent declaration in favour of the establishment of a national home for the Jewish people in Palestine, much negotiation had taken place, the history of which cannot yet be told, says Mr. Cohen.

He does not, however, give us much idea as to the real support Zionism has

amongst the Jews of the world. As far as one can gather from his article, the movement is confined chiefly to the very poorest classes of the Jews in Russia, Roumania and Central Europe, men who would undoubtedly greatly better themselves by going to Palestine, but the Zionists appear to have little support from the rich and wealthy Jews who have "made good" in every country under the sun.

MAKING TWENTY THOUSAND AEROPLANES.

Many experts have declared that the greatest assistance the Americans could give their Allies was to produce immense quantities of aeroplanes, and considerable disappointment has been shown because these machines have not yet appeared in France in their thousands. The popular idea of an aeroplane is that it is merely a few sticks, some cloth and an engine. Actually, of course, it is a highly technical machine, as complicated and as difficult a bit of mechanism as can be imagined. Every minute part must co-ordinate perfectly or it is worthless. The Americans, we are told, turn out over a million motor-cars annually; they will quickly turn out huge quantities of aeroplanes; but we forget that it took all of twenty years' experiment before the million motors in question could be produced each year, and that the Americans had never built an aeroplane engine or a machine save in odd cases here and there to foreign designs.

It is right that we should understand the difficulties the Americans have had to meet, difficulties which they are triumphantly overcoming. Mr. Samuel G. Blythe gives a most informing account of these in *The Saturday Evening Post*. He begins with the engine and ends with the lubricating oil. As it so well illustrates the problems to be overcome, we will touch on this apparently insignificant matter first.

The most satisfactory lubricant for airplane machinery is castor oil. We shall require several million gallons of castor oil each year. A careful canvass and collection of all castor oil securable in this country brought in a supply of two hundred and fifty thousand gallons. That was all there was without robbing the medical stores, which were not very extensive. Formerly we produced much more than that, but with the development of mineral-oil lubricants we stopped planting castor beans. When the survey for the absolutely essential castor oil was begun it was found that not only was there no oil, but there was no seed for

castor-bean plants, no mills to crush the beans if we had them—nothing.

We were obliged to begin at the bottom there also; so we went to India, bought a shipload of castor beans, and shipped them to this country. Then we went to Texas and made arrangements with the farmers to plant castor beans and raise the plants, and fixed a paying price for the work. Then we began the construction of oil mills for crushing the beans, and by the time we need the oil we shall have it.

Who would have dreamed that before the great American aerial fleet could be equipped it would be necessary to ransack India for castor-oil seeds, rush them half round the world, plant them in Texas, cultivate the plants, wait till they had flowered and formed seeds, gather these, send them to crushing mills and extract the needed oil? But that is a small matter compared to some others. An indispensable article is acetone, which is obtained principally from the distillation of wood. It is used for putting on the wings to stretch them to the desired tautness.

There was little acetone. We had to have it; so the problem was how to get it. To that end the aircraft producers summoned scientists and told them the need. We must have acetone; so the scientists, working as patriots, produced acetone. They utilise or will utilise a hundred million bushels of frosted corn. They contrived a new, superior and speedy process for getting it from sawdust. They ransacked every available base. They made possible a new production which will make what this country and our Allies need for this essential purpose. All cloth used in airplanes must be doped, not only for purposes of tightening, but with anti-inflammable dope for protection against incendiary bullets, which are a favourite projectile of the Germans. And acetone is the paramount requirement.

But the real difficulty is cloth. Beside this all others fade into insignificance. Nothing equals Irish linen, and nothing is so difficult to get. England has not half enough, and is trying substitutes. France,

too, has not sufficient for her own requirements. Most of the flax used in pre-war days came from the Baltic provinces of Russia, now in the hands of the enemy. All sorts of substitutes have been tried, but nothing is so satisfactory as linen.

As there was not enough linen to go round—not a hundredth part enough—the problem facing the American aircraft producers was to get a substitute. They had to have it. Naturally the substitute that came to mind was cotton, and they bought several million dollars' worth of long-staple Sea Island cotton, inasmuch as neither this country nor any other could produce the linen required.

Experiments are now being made with this cotton in the form of a fabric that shall be adequate for the purpose. The fabric must have strength, lightness, and a certain absorbent quality of taking the dope, which linen has in a high degree. They expect to get it. They must! Hence, they will. But it is a problem that is taking the greatest effort of the best brains in America. It is no hit-or-miss job.

But great as these problems are, they are only three among many. Take the wood used in aeroplane construction. No satisfactory substitute has yet been found for spruce. It answers the purpose better than any other, and has greater all-round capability than any other wood or metal that has yet been tried. There is nothing like so much spruce in America as there used to be, and the demands of Europe have depleted the stocks of seasoned spruce in the country. Spruce is needed in immense quantities, but seasoned spruce. The green wood is of no use at all, and by the ordinary process of seasoning it would take from eighteen months to two years to be in shape. Obviously here was a delay of at least a year in aeroplane construction.

Men were set at work to contrive processes by which spruce could be dried in a much shorter time, and adequate seasoning was brought down to four months. Four months was too long. So, after the best brains in the country had tackled the job, a process was devised by which spruce can be seasoned and made ready for use in fourteen days; and that process can be reduced to eight days. It is a process of seasoning by saturation, too technical to be detailed here; but it works.

Meantime competent men are studying the problem of substitution. Metal has been tried in France, and here, also; but it is not satisfactory. Other wood has been tried, but it is heavy; and steel does not stand the action of the altitudes. Presently, without doubt, the substitute will be secured; but the seasoning problem has been solved, and spruce is coming forward in adequate quantities. However, this was not done in a day. It took time to get this result.

It is not necessary to go into the question of the engines and the making of planes themselves. Suffice it to say that the makers of the Rolls-Royce engine, admittedly the best English machine, after going into the question, told the Americans that, with every facility of building their engines—money, factories, skilled help—they could get them into production by February, 1918, and could promise 2000 engines the first year! That was not a drop in the bucket. So the Americans decided to evolve an engine of their own.

Thus came the Liberty engine. It was no inventing job. It was a combination of all proved things. It was built to be standardised. It was designed so that any or all of its parts may be made by any and all shops where there is equipment. It was designed so that it may be assembled anywhere. It was made so that each part of one engine is interchangeable with each similar part of any other engine. It was designed so that there shall be a minimum of waste and of supplies needed, with a maximum of efficiency. And it is a whale of a success!

The Liberty engine, says Mr. Blythe, is superior to any other. Speedier, infinitely simpler, and all its 2000 parts can be made in different factories by machines. The French and British engines are made by hand, and only a machine-made engine could be produced in sufficient quantities to appreciably affect the air position. Mr. Blythe admits, however, that nothing that exists becomes obsolete so quickly as an air programme, and therein, of course, lies the danger of putting all one's eggs into the basket of a single standardised engine.

Having evolved an engine the Americans found it necessary to evolve a plane to fit it, and were compelled to discard all the French, British, Italian and German types. They have now produced a magnificent one, says Mr. Blythe. He tells of all manner of other problems, met or still to be overcome, of ingenious devices invented, and standardising methods everywhere employed. On the vital question of the numbers already built and likely to be soon available, he says:—

There have been many claims, statements, prophecies and exhortations, in the public prints and elsewhere, to the broad general effect that it is as simple as rolling off a log for this country to make one hundred thousand airplanes in a year. Why not? We make one million five hundred thousand automobiles a year. Surely we can make one hundred thousand simple little things like airplanes. Passing the obvious objection that it took us twenty years to develop our manufacturers so we could make one

million five hundred thousand automobiles a year, what could we do with one hundred thousand airplanes if we had them? Where could we put them?

Where could we get the men to handle them and fly them?

One hundred thousand airplanes, placed tip to tip, would extend for about one thousand miles. There wouldn't be enough hangar space for them in France, with Spain and Portugal annexed. It takes ten men for the upkeep and flying of each airplane. One hundred thousand airplanes would require a million men to handle them,

divided as follows:—Two hundred thousand flyers and pilots and bombers, and so on, and eight hundred thousand trained mechanics and helpers. Even if we could make a hundred thousand airplanes in the first year of our part in the war—which we cannot—we couldn't get the men to handle them, or the ships to transport them, or the space to store them—except in the air.

We shall not make a hundred thousand airplanes in our first year, or anything like a hundred thousand; but we shall make a large number, a very large number, and they will be in France in excellent time.

THE TERRIBLE TANK.

The Allies have the credit of inventing at any rate one quite new engine of war—the tank. It came as a surprise and achieved great results. A writer in *Current History* gives some particulars about these monsters and the work they have done. Originally manned by the Heavy-Armoured Section of the Motor Machine Gun Service, the tanks have now a separate "show" of their own, quite distinct from the Machine-Gun Corps. There is now a special Tanks Corps under the command of a Director-General.

The men for this new section were taken from the pick of the Derby recruits; for the junior officers two Colonels went on a voyage of discovery to cadet battalions, and other units and selected promising young men with a knowledge of internal combustion engines who had given proofs of an adventurous spirit and of ability to make men move. For some time the object of the new unit remained a mystery even to those drafted into it, except so far as the qualifications required of the officers afforded an inkling.

After some time, with much secrecy, the men were introduced to their new weapon of destruction.

The new armoured car concealed in this fair certainly had all the promised elements of surprise. At first sight it appeared little more than a huge, shapeless bulk of metal. It was said to weigh some forty tons, was armour plated all over, with tiny spyholes at intervals, from some of which peeped out murderous-looking gun muzzles, and had no visible means of progression except two small motor wheels attached like a tail behind. The wheels behind were found to act only as a rudder to direct its course, the propulsive force coming from some internal and invisible wheels that travelled over long endless metal tracks, extending in an elliptical shape from the snout to the rump and moving forward as the creature advanced. The pace at which this strange object moved was slow—barely three miles

an hour. The caterpillar tractor was adopted, but even then construction was a slow business. Improvements were continually being adopted and modifications made so that it was not until September, 1916, that the first tank went into action. They are of two types. One, called the male, is armed with two Hotchkiss quick firing guns, with a subsidiary armament of machine-guns. It is designed to deal at close quarters with the concrete emplacements of the German machine-gunners. The female type is armed with machine-guns only, and attends to the enemy gunners and riflemen.

Not only had the crews to learn how to drive, steer and repair the monsters, they had to learn how to live inside them.

Imagine a narrow cabin some nine or ten feet wide, thirteen feet long, and four feet high, into which had to be crammed an engine of over 100 horse power, two guns, and three or four machine guns, provisions for three days, ammunition and equipment, besides a crew of several men. The noise made by the engine made it impossible to hear an order, consequently every communication had to be made by signs; the armour plating was so effective that one could only see for steering or for aiming the guns through the narrowest chinks, the motion, too, of the tank over rough ground was not unlike that of a ship in a heavy sea, and this motion, combined with the smell of oil, the close atmosphere, the heat and the noise, was at first apt to induce the same symptoms as sometimes afflict those uninured to sea voyages.

The tanks, on their first appearance, caused immense amusement amongst the British soldiers, and consternation amongst the Germans when they crashed clumsily through walls, surmounted defences, and forced their irresistible way through barbed wire entanglements.

It must not, however, be imagined that the proceedings of the tanks were quite as amusing to those inside as they appeared to the British infantry, who had barbed

A year was spent in researches and experiments before a satisfactory machine was designed and constructed. Finally

wire levelled for them and machine-gun emplacements crushed as they advanced. The cramped quarters, the head-splitting noise, and the difficulty of ascertaining what was going on outside made the lives of the tank crew anything but agreeable in battle. Their periscopes were apt to be shot away, the steering gear, never easy, became almost impossible. The mere manual labour of moving the levers of the engines and turning apparatus was enormous, especially in these early machines. The crew had difficulty in communicating with the outside world, and had to rely chiefly on two carrier pigeons taken with them on the voyage; as for communication with them by the outside world, this was even harder. The tank, indeed, proved to be an admirable protection against ordinary rifle bullets.

The writer mentions that the casualties amongst the crews were small in proportion to the number of tanks knocked out. The Germans were quick to contrive counter measures. They have special guns in the trenches to deal with them. Riflemen and machine gunners are supplied with armour piercing bullets for use at close quarters, and elaborately concealed tank traps are prepared to engulf the monsters. It is said that the Germans have improved on the British model, and that they have a surprise in store, but there is as yet no sign of it, though the great offensive is well under weigh.

A GREAT SWEDE.

"The strong man of Sweden" is the title given by David Edstrom, to Hjalmar Branting, the leader of the Social Democrats among the Scandinavians. The well-known Swedish-American sculptor declares that in his great work of making a free democratic Sweden, Branting has each year achieved some vital reform by his personal will and force, in spite of bitter opposition from the radical wing of his own party on the one hand, and from the pro-German party, which includes the King, on the other. Thus it is to him that the people are indebted for better homes and better wages, for libraries and for free speech, for garden cities and improved sanitation, for loan banks for the poor, for general suffrage, and for picnic clubs—truly a notable list of the things that make for public welfare and happiness.

Branting is the subject of an appreciative study in *Le Correspondant* (Paris). We learn from this that he was born in Stockholm in 1860, his father being Professor Branting, the favourite pupil of the famous founder of the system known as Swedish Gymnastics, Professor Henrik Ling. Beginning his studies under his father, the famous statesman continued them in a school for the upper classes, where he had as his fellow-students the present king and the other royal princes. Later, at the University of Upsala, he devoted himself particularly to mathematics and astronomy. But on leaving the University his ardent spirit adopted eagerly the liberal ideas of which such men as Strindberg and Brandes were leading exponents, and became definitely radical and anti-conservative.

He completely abandoned a scientific career and made his debut in journalism

After a few random articles he became the editor of "Tiden," ("The Times"), a small radical journal with socialist tendencies. Thenceforward politics entirely absorbed him. The success he obtained as the director of "Tiden" was relative. Personally he became more and more socialist—one of the most advanced in Sweden. He soon quitted the "Tiden" to undertake the control of the "Social-Demokraten," the journal founded by Palin, the tailor who founded the Socialist Party in Sweden.

From this moment he devoted himself completely to the propaganda of his ideas. An indefatigable worker, of a robust health, which he owed to his paternal education, he not only occupied himself actively with the direction of his journal, most of whose leading articles were written by himself, but organised meetings which he addressed with eloquence. He was active everywhere, in the assemblies of the trades unions, in the regulations of the various workmen, in all the manifestations of labour. In a short time he became the most eloquent orator of the Social Democrat Party, the one most in evidence and the one most listened to. Incessantly attacking the Conservatives, he did not confine himself to harassing them in every way, but took pleasure in provoking attacks against himself. The socialist movement was most felt in the capital, but the great majority of the provinces still remained conservative. A provincial journalist published a blasphemous article. He was prosecuted and convicted by a provincial jury. Branting republished the article in extenso, to see if a jury in the capital would convict as well as a provincial jury. He had the desired proof, for he was sentenced to three months in prison. Nevertheless, the social democratic movement made great progress.

This progress was in spite of the fact that the vote was at that time based on income, while the party was largely recruited from working men. However, after two failures to obtain a seat in the Riksdag, Branting was elected to that body in 1896, becoming the first Swedish Socialist deputy

to the Diet which opened in 1897. Since then both his party and his personal influence have steadily increased, until the elections of 1914 resulted in the obtaining of 87 seats out of the 230 in the Second Chamber, and 13 of the 150 in the Senate.

The elections held last September were marked by great bitterness between the Conservatives and the Social Democrats, the latter making use of the Luxberg documents in the Argentine affair. On September 16th they made a great public demonstration in Stockholm.

Branting and seven other of the most prominent members of the party delivered addresses marked by great violence, affirming in a long resolution adopted with enthusiasm and published later throughout the country, that they were fighting for the objects which, from the beginning of its existence, had been those of the International Social Democracy, against war and militarism, for peace and justice, against secret diplomacy. This manifesto violently attacked Germany, and was, in fact, not only a social manifestation, but one in favour of the Allies. The conservative press, with even more violence, denounced the Allies, seeing them behind the Socialists, and accusing them of "wishing to drag Sweden into the dance of death of the black, white and yellow peoples around Germany," and of "pushing Sweden into the abyss of misery.

We pass over the account which follows of Swedish politics and the conflict between these two parties and the third, or "Liberal," party, to resume the sketch of Branting.

Finally, after long negotiations, a mixed Ministry was formed, having at its head a Liberal, and composed of seven Liberals and four Social Democrats, including Branting as Minister of Finance. On October 10th

it came into power, having for its programme the maintenance of strict neutrality, the suffrage for women, and the unrestricted communal vote. On the same day Branting announced in the "Social-Demokraten" that, on account of his entry into the Cabinet, he would quit the post of chief director of that journal, which he had occupied for thirty-one years.

At first view, it is true, this Cabinet seems more Liberal than Socialist, but the strong personality of Branting, the revolutionary character of his career, the confidence he inspires in his own party, which he completely dominates, his indisputable honesty, the immense progress of Socialism in Sweden, which is almost entirely due to him, and his great political skill, make it "a Branting ministry."

The closing paragraph gives this vivid portrait of the new Minister's striking physical personality:—

Vigorous, with broad and slightly stooping shoulders, with an eye which is piercing and often hard when he is stirred, endowed with a powerful voice which carries clear and vibrant to the last rows of the crowds in big meetings, he is an orator. He speaks almost entirely without notes, and, gifted with an extraordinary memory and strong lungs, enabling him to answer heckling without fatigue, he replies to all his opponents. One of the Ministers of the last Conservative Cabinet called him "an opportunist revolutionary." The phrase is neat and sufficiently exact.

It is interesting to recall the fact that Branting, strong pro-Ally as he is, was moved to declare, after the German announcement at Brest-Litowski last December, concerning their willingness to discuss peace with all the Allies on the basis of "No annexations and no indemnities," that "If the Allies coldly reject this offer, the peoples of the world will regard it as a criminal and foolish act."



Il 420. [Florence.]

PROFITEERS AND SPORT.

"Do not shoot them, comrade. They are only crows who live and get fat just like we do ourselves."



Telegraph.]

[Philadelphia.]

ENDING A DREAM.

CATECHISM OF THE WAR—LXIV.

Q.—You mentioned recently that all the American troops in France were volunteers. Have you any particulars as to the number of men who have volunteered since the war began?

A.—According to an official statement, issued at the end of 1917, the number of volunteers accepted for the regular army since April 1st, 1917, to December 27th, 1917, was 344,960. In addition the National Guard is voluntarily recruited. Since this has been taken over by the Federal Government different divisions have been created, in which the men are drawn from the National Guards of the different States. One, which has already reached France, is known as the Rainbow Division, as soldiers from the National Guards of every State in the Union find place in it.

Q.—Have the Americans yet called up the second draft?

A.—Apparently they have not yet done so. The first, which produced 670,000 men, was called up in September, and part of it began training in October. The latest American papers, however, disclose the fact that there are still men who were selected in this draft who have not been called up. Failure to call up these men who have long been notified of their selection is causing much distress and hardship, and after considerable pressure the Provost Marshal General issued a statement, in December last, that these men were not to expect to be called up until after February 15th.

Q.—Is it really true that although the British farmers have made huge profits since the war began, they are not taxed upon these?

A.—In answering this question before I assumed, as everyone naturally would, that the farmer paid a tax on his income, like everyone else. I now find, however, that he pays the income tax on his rent only. It is specifically provided that this cannot be raised whilst the war is raging. Consequently a farmer actually pays very little in taxes. He may pay an income tax upon a rental of, say, £200, but he does not pay a farthing more. The profits made by the sale of his produce at splendid prices are not subject to taxation at all. It is true that the selling

price of wheat and grain has been fixed, and that therefore his profits have been somewhat curtailed, but even now there is a good margin for him, and he pays no income tax whatever on profits of any kind.

Q.—Are the American papers publishing official casualty lists of the troops in France?

A.—Yes; they have been doing so for some time now, although, of course, the deaths are almost all due to sickness. A perusal of the lists discloses the fact that by far the greatest majority of the men have died of pneumonia. Meningitis comes next on the list.

Q.—Does the American Government insure American ships against loss?

A.—The Bureau of War Risks has been in operation since September 2nd, 1914. Up to the end of 1917 the insurances issued on hulls and cargoes in American vessels equalled 1,001,537,525 dols. (£200,300,000). Almost the whole of this insurance had been effected since America entered the war. Premiums received exceeded the losses by 12,888,420 dols. The Government also insures the soldiers and the sailors. Of these men no less than 362,941 have taken out policies averaging 8577 dols. (£1710) each. The total value of the policies issued now exceeds 3,000,000,000 dols.

Q.—Are the Germans working the mines in Serbia

A.—According to the American consul at Sofia, the Germans have discovered new coal deposits in Serbia, and are beginning work on these. In addition they have taken active possession of all the other mines in the country, and have already greatly increased the output compared with what was obtained in pre-war days.

Q.—Is it really true that there is much slacking down in labour circles in the United States?

A.—According to reports appearing in the American periodicals, this would seem to be the case. For instance, the output of 25 riveting gangs in the Pacific Coast Shipyards used to be 10,000 driven rivets

per day. It is now reported to be only 1277 rivets. Few riveters now reach the former standard of 400 rivets daily; in fact, the average is said to have fallen to 150. Assuming, however, that 300 rivets were the average, if a similar ratio were applied to other processes, it means that the Pacific Coast Shipwards would take three months to turn out ships which they could formerly have done in two months.

Q.—Are riveters well paid?

A.—Youths are earning as much as £4, £5, and £6 a week. At the old rates before the Federal Wage Adjustment Board recommended an increase of more than 30 per cent., riveters earned on piecework and overtime from £12 to £20 a week. Now these men are earning from £18 to £26 weekly. It was reckoned that the wages of the twenty-five gangs who drove 10,000 rivets would be about £80 a day; they are now getting more than that for driving 1277 rivets! This gives some idea of the reasons for the gigantic increase in cost of shipbuilding in the United States.

Q.—In the Catechism some time ago you said that not all the physically fit young men in Germany are called up for military training. I am told that this statement is incorrect, and that all fit young men are called up.

A.—I have never said that they were not called up. What I said was that only 50 per cent. of the physically fit young men of Germany enter the army, although all up to the age of 45 are liable for service in case of war. All young men when they reach military age are called upon to report to the military authorities. There is no general proclamation that men reaching the age of twenty must report, as records are kept of everyone in the Empire, and a notice is sent to each individual, instructing him where and when he is to report. You can obtain confirmation of the fact that only 50 per cent. of the physically fit actually enter the army from the "Encyclopædia Britannica" or any reference book which touches on the military arrangements of the different countries.

Q.—Could you tell me anything about the naval aircraft factory which was to be erected at Philadelphia?

A.—Work on its construction was begun in August last. It was completed by November. It covers no less than three acres, and cost 1,000,000 dols. to build.

The keel of the first aero-boat was laid ninety days after the building was begun. When in full operation it will employ 2000 skilled workmen.

Q.—Did the American Red Cross obtain the 10,000,000 members it aimed for in its famous Christmas drive?

A.—This drive actually realised no less than 16,000,000 members, bringing the total membership of the Red Cross Society in the United States up to 22,000,000.

Q.—The housing of munition workers was one of the great problems in England. Are the Americans successfully coping with it?

A.—The Government has been asked to vote no less than £7,000,000 for the erection of houses for the workman army engaged in building the emergency fleet. Arrangements for the housing of munition workers were completed long ago, when the big orders from Europe began to reach the United States.

Q.—What has happened to the Russian troops in France?

A.—A cable recently announced that many of them had crossed the frontier into Switzerland, where presumably they would be interned, like the soldiers of any other belligerent. Owing, however, to the conclusion of peace between Germany and Russia, it is said that the Swiss authorities have arranged for their transfer back to Russia through the Central Empires.

Q.—Is it correct that the Finns are starving?

A.—A special commissioner sent by Finland to the United States asserts that a late frost in July killed the entire grain crop in Finland, that in times of peace Finland only produced one-half of her wheat requirements, the balance being imported from Russia. On his representations the American Food Controller is sending 40,000 tons of oats and corn in ten ship loads to relieve the people who are starving. This arrangement was made before the Germans took a hand in Finnish affairs. Whether these grain ships have reached Finland or not we do not know. The Commissioner also mentioned that the Finns had paid £2,000,000 to the Russians for grain, which was being despatched to them, but the whole of which had been looted *en route*. The Finns had been altogether without coal for three years, and have been obliged to use nothing but wood.

Q.—Is a greater acreage being sown in wheat in the United States than ever before?

It was planned to sow 47,337,000 acres in the winter of 1917, the object being to produce 1,000,000,000 bushels of wheat. Actually, however, only 42,170,000 acres were sown. This was, however, a 4 per cent. increase over the area sown in 1916, and even more than the record sowing of 1914, which equalled 42,012,000 acres, the yield in that year being 684,999,000 bushels.

Q.—Was the wheat crop in Great Britain last year larger than the year before?

A.—The crop of 1917 in England and Wales totalled 59,122,684 bushels. This was 2,716,897 bushels more than the 1916 crop. The yield per acre, too, was better, the average being 29.88 bushels in 1917, as against 28.60 bushels in 1916.

Q.—Were the Italian and French wheat crops up to the average?

A.—No; the yield was far below what it was in 1916, and that, too, was a great deal below the average. The Italians reaped 3,810,000 metric tons in 1917, compared with 4,804,000 tons in 1916. In France the yield of the unoccupied portion in 1913 was 35,800,000 metric tons. In 1917 this had dropped to 22,220,000 tons. This was due partly to poor yield, partly to the fact that whilst 40,600,000 acres were sown in wheat in 1913, only 30,700,000 acres were sown last year. It was with the object of getting these 10,000,000 acres under cultivation again that the Americans shipped no less than 1500 farm tractors to France last autumn. If the wheat yield is brought up to the 1913 standard it is reckoned that this will liberate 1,950,000 tons of shipping during 1918.

Q.—Could you tell me how much money the Americans have lent the Allies to date?

A.—I have no particulars beyond the end of 1917. At that time they were as follows:—

Great Britain	£409,000,000
France	257,000,000
Italy	100,000,000
Russia	65,000,000
Belgium	13,500,000
Serbia	800,000
Total	£845,300,000

Q.—Could you tell me how many men have been conscripted in New Zealand?

A.—The Minister of Defence recently gave a summary of New Zealand war contributions in man power under the ballot

system. Up to February 2nd, 1918, 92,674 men had been drawn in the ballots, of whom 9001 were reckoned as defaulters. 5851 of these have since been found, leaving 3150 men to be found or to be arrested.

Q.—Was the "Vaterland," which is now being used as a transport by the Americans, much damaged by the German crew before it was commandeered?

A.—No. According to the American engineers most of the damage on that ship was due to defective machinery, and it is stated that had the war not broken out she would have had to be completely overhauled. None of the usual damage appears to have been done on this particular ship.

Q.—How did the Germans render their ships useless?

A.—The most common way in which they damaged ships was by breaking cylinders, valve chests, circulating pumps, steam and exhaust nozzles on main engines, by dry firing boilers and thus melting the tubes and destroying furnaces, and by cutting steam pipes, plugging them and then joining them up again so that the plug could not be detected. They also destroyed or made away with various portions of machinery, which they assumed could not be replaced in America.

Q.—Is the Panama Canal being much used at present?

A.—During 1917 a greater tonnage passed through this waterway than ever before. The total tonnage which passed through was 6,009,353. In 1916 it was 2,479,762; in 1915, 3,849,035 tons. Altogether since the Canal has been opened 3751 vessels have used it.

Q.—Have the Americans been successful in recruiting nurses for their overseas army?

A.—The authorities estimate that they require 37,500 nurses for an army of 1,500,000 men. Up to the end of 1917 3800 nurses were in camp.

Q.—Is a foreigner who has been naturalised in Australia regarded as an Australian in New Zealand?

A.—As already pointed out in previous issues, naturalisation in Australia does not carry with it the rights of citizenship in Great Britain or in any of the other Dominions. Therefore directly a naturalised Australian leaves the Commonwealth he is no longer regarded as a British sub-

ject, is not even regarded as an Australian. According to a war regulation issued in New Zealand on May 2nd, 1916, this is the view taken by the New Zealand Government. The regulation says:—"Although a German may have been naturalised in Australia, such naturalisation has no effect out of Australia, and in New Zealand, and elsewhere throughout the Empire he remains an alien enemy. This rule is absolute and permits no exceptions.

Q.—Why are not all Germans and people of German descent interned in Australia?

A.—Presumably the same considerations govern the action of the Australian Government as that of New Zealand. Mr. T. N. Wilford, the Minister for Justice in the Dominion, recently told business men who deputed him at Napier on the question of internment of enemy aliens in New Zealand that "internment of enemy subjects was an international matter, and the New Zealand Government considered it to be its duty to give effect loyally to the requests of the Imperial Government. . . . His Majesty's Government had instructed them that care should be taken not to arrest persons whose known characters precluded suspicion or who could be personally vouched for to the satisfaction of the Government." "These are the British Government's instructions. Are we to obey them or refuse to obey them? I believe, no matter what our private opinions are, we should obey them." The Minister went

on to say that while he could not understand such a policy, he personally thought that it had been decided on by the Allies for the protection of their own people in enemy territory, and more particularly for the protection of the subjects of our Allies, against whom the enemy would undoubtedly take reciprocal action.

Q.—Is it true that thousands of interned German civilians have been liberated in England in order to work on farms, etc.? If so, why does Australia not follow this example?

A.—Reference has been made in various British papers to the fact that civilian prisoners have been employed in felling trees, quarrying, and so on; but I have seen no reference to any of them being engaged as workers on farms. In the internment camps they have also been employed in making mail bags and the like, but although there are over 14,000 able-bodied German civilians interned in Great Britain, very few of them appear to have been set to work outside the camps. The prisoners referred to in cables who are being utilised for farm and similar work, are prisoners of war (soldiers). It would be far better if the men who could work were allowed to do so, as everyone agrees that both in German and British internment camps the dull monotony and the feeling that their best years are being wasted preys terribly on the nerves of the prisoners. Anything which would keep them employed would obviously be of immense benefit to them.

The Winds of Chance

By REX BEACH.

Author of "The Barrier," "The Iron Trail," "The Ne'er-do-well," "The Silver Horde," etc.

The publication of the next instalment of Mr. Rex Beach's thrilling story has unavoidably had to be postponed until our issue of April 20th.

School Children

are very liable to catch cold. They have to go in all weathers—often having to sit in school with wet feet. Apart from this, they are always face to face with the risk from infection—especially when epidemics of Whooping Cough, Measles, Diphtheria, Influenza, etc., are about. Mothers of School Boys and Girls however can be always FREE of ANXIETY if they have a bottle of

Hearne's Bronchitis — Cure —

in the house, as one dose of this Medicine at the first indication of a "cold" will at once "nip in the bud" what might otherwise prove to be a serious illness. Cork the bottle up—the rest will keep.

For Coughs, Croup, Colds on the Chest

The REMEDY with the REPUTATION.

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Rheumatism is the cause of more pain than any other scourge of the human race. The usual treatment for it is internal, and internal remedies to be effective must be taken in doses which jeopardise and frequently ruin the all-important organs of digestion. Treating Rheumatism at the expense of the stomach is like cutting off a leg to get rid of a bad toe. A medicine-destroyed stomach not only leads to endless discomfort and pain in itself, but without good digestion pure nourishing blood and sound nerves are impossible, and the body has no power to repel the ravages of Rheumatism, Kidney Disease, Liver Trouble and all the ailments leading to a general breakdown.

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Castlereagh St. (next Tivoli Theatre), Sydney, N.S.W.



THE SOUL OF JUNE COURTNEY.*

Denver Rainham "was unconsciously fighting hard to retain some small fragments at least of the ideals he was fast losing. In the past ten years cut off as he had been from civilisation, and living in more or less close touch with the brute creation, he had thought of England as the place where the refinements of Life made Life a beautiful thing. He had visualised the women as being not only beautiful in face and form, but in soul too. Unconsciously he had built up, in the quietness of his own thoughts, an ideal of the English woman that made her the embodiment of all that was most perfect—all that a woman should be.

"And now, within his first month, his ideals were being shattered. He had met the most beautiful woman in London, and she was pulling away from his eyes the curtain that had hidden from him the blackness of a woman's soul."

The story of that disillusionment and its great sequel are told in Elizabeth Ryley's new novel, "The Soul of June Courtney," a much read and discussed book. We have had many stories showing the effects of the war upon our men. This book shows how it affected June and some other women. It is an interesting theme, and worked out with some distinction.

There is a great book yet to be written which will tell the story of those Britons who came from the ends of the earth, laying down great tasks, to come to the help of the Mother Country in her moment of need. And what amazing sequels to those individual stories there have been, and will be! Let us get back to one of them. Denver Rainham, and June Courtney.

June's father, "Theodore Courtney, was an intellectual of the highest type. He was wealthy enough to be able to devote his days to the study he loved best—the study of English literature. He was eager for the companionship of an intellectually con-

genial wife, and he fondly imagined that it was going to be his when he married Adela Deane. But all too soon he discovered the shallowness of her soul and brain. He said nothing, gave no indication that he had made a discovery of any kind, and merely retired still further into the recesses of his sumptuous study, leaving his wife to carry on her pretence of intellectuality before an admiring world. . . .

"The three members of the Courtney household each went their own way. Now and then Theodore Courtney would look at his beautiful daughter with a somewhat wistful expression in his student's eyes, but she never noticed. Her life was so full and overflowing to excitement that she had no time to be over-observant.

"Unfortunately June began to assimilate her mother's point of view in matters personal and social. She came to regard the social world and the people in it as a mere background for her own effective appearance. But, as she grew from picturesque childhood into magnificent youthful beauty, her mother's shallow heart grew jealous. She ceased to appear in public beside her Juno-like daughter, whose perfection of face and figure intensified her own shortcomings."

It was June who, with her heartless selfishness and callous flirtations, brought anger and disillusionment to the mind of Denver. And he told her so plainly.

"Yes," he said, "I meant what I said just now about you. You are worth better things. You are the most beautiful woman in London, and, to my mind, physical perfection and every kind of perfection should go together. All the years I have been abroad—I went away immediately after my mother's death—I have thought of you women at home here as being of the same type as my mother. She has always stood to me for the perfection of womanhood."

"And now that you have seen us you realise how far short we fall of the ideal you had pictured?"

*"The Soul of June Courtney." By Elizabeth Ryley. (Duckworth; 5/-.)

"He made no reply. All at once it had been borne in upon him that he had talked as a prig talks. He was not sure if the girl beside him was mocking him or not . . . for he had long ago decided that she was wholly conscienceless; he had watched with grim amusement the other men who had succumbed to her fascination."

It was the war which opened her eyes with a terrible balsam.

"Theodore Courtney looked across at his beautiful daughter with the same tender expression with which he had often regarded her in her early childhood. With all his dreamy aloofness, he had the subtle intuition and sympathy of a tender woman. He had watched his daughter very closely, though quite unobtrusively, during the last few days, and he had been glad to see the signs of her awakening. He had been sorry for her, too, for he knew that she had been suffering. Her conscience, in awakening from its long torpor, was likely to bring her pain. But pain is always the prelude of birth, and Theodore Courtney could see that a new soul was being born in his beautiful daughter."

Denver Rainham was one of those who came under the war's terrible scourge—he lost his sight.

"The tragedy that had happened to Denver Rainham was a little different in its effects from those other tragedies; the personality of the man seemed to make the thing doubly terrible, and June could not rid her mind of the picture of him she had called up. He was one of those individuals, she knew, whose antidote for all troubles was activity, either mental or physical, and how could he indulge in activity of any sort now.

"Surely—surely—science and medical skill must have devised some sort of alleviation for a blind man?" she thought impatiently as she trudged steadily across

Kensington Gardens one glorious morning. And even as the thought entered her brain there came to her recollection the mention of some sort of institution that had been opened for blinded soldiers—some hostel—ah, yes! St. Dunstan's?"

"What was St. Dunstan's?"

She went to see, and there they said to her: "There is no question here of considering the men *afflicted*; they are merely *handicapped*—a difference that makes for courage."

"Then came a visit to the rooms where the rearing of poultry and the details of incubators were being dealt with by competent instructors; and as June and her guide made their return journey to the house itself, the sense of humility was deepening in her mind. As they came again to the lounge and saw the various nurses and helpers quietly reading to some of the men, talking to them, or writing letters for them, June discovered at last one little hope of usefulness in herself. At any rate she could read to them and write letters for them.

"And a resolve grew up in her mind that she would do more than that. On inquiry she was told that she could learn Braille at the Institution for the Blind, and she could with application become sufficiently expert in typewriting in a short time to be able to help the men to learn its intricacies; and she made a quiet resolve that she would do these things.

"When she sat down to dinner that night with her father, he realised that she had taken another step along the thorny road that led to the making of a new and more worthy soul within her—and he was well content."

And as time went by Denver was content, too, and, blind though he was, he saw things which eyes never saw—he saw a woman's soul blaze into unselfish love.

FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS QUARTER.

The last French loan realised 10,276,522,000 francs, half of which was new money.

The total amount of British Treasury Bills outstanding on January 5th, 1918, was £4,073,899,000.

The number of War Savings Certificates sold between April 1st, 1917, and January 5th, 1918, was £31,900,000.

The British War Loans were quoted in January as follow:—First 3½ per cent. loan, 85½; second 4½ per cent. loan, 99½;

CORRECT TREATMENT

— FOR —

NERVOUS AILMENTS.

By a Qualified Chemist.

Neuraesthesia, or nervous breakdown, is due to the nerve tissue of the human system being exhausted at a greater rate than it is replenished by the creation of new cells. The excess of wastage may be due to overwork, climatic conditions, indigestion, accident, and last, but by no means least, to worry. Whatever the cause, the effect is much the same, revealing itself in Headaches, Backache, Neuralgia, Rheumatism, Brain-fag, Lassitude, Hysteria, Palpitation, Insomnia, Timidity, and other well-known symptoms. Anaemia and Neuraesthesia are usually allied ailments, especially with girls just merging into womanhood. For a patient to take opiates, or sedatives, or stimulants is the greatest mistake possible. The symptom may be temporarily reduced by such means; but the cause is almost invariably aggravated, and often the user becomes a drunkard or a drug fiend, because of the craving that is engendered for more and still more drugging. Obviously the correct treatment for nervous exhaustion is to nourish the nervous system, and thereby replenish the depleted nerve tissue. If the patient can get change of climate and complete rest, the rebuilding process will, of course be facilitated; but the great majority of people cannot afford long holidays, and their reliance necessarily has to be placed upon medical treatment. The science of chemistry has proved beyond all doubt what the elements of rich blood and healthy nerves are, and has taught how they may be administered. The terms "Nerves of Iron," or "An Iron Constitution," have long been employed to describe vigorous, pain-free people, who enjoy every moment of life, and whose unimpaired vital forces carry them to success in their undertakings, whether physical or mental. Compare such people with the pale-faced, anaemic and timid neuraesthetic patients, who are everlastingly suffering from some ache or pain, who do not know what it is to enjoy a good night's sleep, and who lack the confidence and energy to even attempt what others accomplish, and you will readily realise the necessity of purifying the blood and nourishing the nerves. The question at once arises, "How can the nourishment of the nerves be effected?" The answer is furnished by the actual experience of thousands of people, who, by taking HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS, have reaped the benefit of the knowledge gained by a qualified chemist during his practice of over 25 years dispensing prescriptions for medical men, who specialised in the treatment of "nerves." How successful they are in overcoming nervous ailments is told daily by people prominent in the professional, commercial and industrial life of Australia.

If you are feeling run down and "nervy," you will be well advised if you take a course of HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS. They are obtainable from all leading chemists and stores. Price, 3s. per box, containing 12 days' treatment, or six boxes for 17s. 3d. Small boxes containing six days' supply cost 2s. each.

EVERY PARENT SHOULD KNOW

How to Make a Good, Non-Poisonous Cough Mixture, and Save Much Money.

To avoid the dangers attendant upon the giving to children of cough mixtures containing such habit-forming opium drugs as paregoric, laudanum and morphia parents will be well advised if they make their own family cough mixture from HEENZO (registered name for Hean's Essence), which is a compound of non-poisonous herbal extracts, needing only the addition of warm water and sweetening to make a most reliable treatment for chest and throat troubles. Each bottle of HEENZO will make a pint of ready-to-use mixture. A pint of ready-made cough remedies would cost at least 12s. HEENZO costs only 2/- (by post 2/3).

Proof of the curative merits of the mixture made from HEENZO is furnished by letters received from over 6000 well-known citizens, who attest that it is the quickest relief-giver ever used by them for Asthma, Bronchitis, Influenza, Whooping Cough, Colds and Sore Throats. Here are two letters which are typical of the many others received:—

M. MAX SELINSKY,

The Famous Violinist, writing from 433 Victoria Parade, East Melbourne, on August 2, 1917, said:

Seldom have I had greater pleasure in writing a letter to anyone than I feel in conveying to you my deep sense of gratitude for the benefit I have derived from the use of your HEENZO and HEENZO COUGH DIAMONDS. Till using them I never thought it possible to get any medicine so effectively check the progress of colds. I think the merits of HEENZO should be known to everyone.

MRS. C. HOLT,

Wattle Glen, Nandalay, Victoria, wrote on October 18, 1917:

I have tried several remedies for colds and influenza, but none of them ever gave me such quick relief as HEENZO. Yesterday I was laid up with influenza, and could not hold my head up. It felt as heavy as lead. To-day it is just the opposite. I have great faith in HEENZO. I have only used it twice, and on each occasion it gave me immediate relief. As we live in the hot Mallee country, 25 miles from a doctor, I intend to get another bottle of HEENZO and keep it on hand in its concentrated form for other use than for colds, as it is just as well to keep a supply handy in case of sickness, if only to give relief till one can get to the doctor.

Mrs. Holt's decision to keep a bottle of the concentrated HEENZO in the house is a wise one. About 15 to 20 drops of the pure essence, taken in hot water, is very efficacious in cases of stomach cramps and diarrhoea. A little of the full strength HEENZO, inserted on cotton wool into the hollow of an aching tooth, will give prompt relief, provided there is no abscess forming on the root. It is also splendid for earache, and its tonic properties are valuable.

N.B.—HEENZO COUGH DIAMONDS, referred to by M. Max Selinsky, are lozenges medicated with HEENZO, and are largely used by singers, public speakers, travellers and others, who like something that may be conveniently carried in vest pocket or handbag. The mixture is, however, recommended for general family use.

£150
Patriotic Beauty
Competition

Post
That
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Who is Australasia's Greatest Beauty?

CONDITIONS OF COMPETITION

Photographs with full name and complete address written **ON BACK** to be sent to Creslo Laboratories, No. 18, Cann's Buildings, Carrington street, Sydney, carefully packed and postage fully prepaid; with full rights of publication. Photos, returnable if postage stamps are enclosed for return.

Competition to run for ninety days, between March 10th, 1918, and June 8th, 1918, after which date photos received will not be considered. Neither correspondence nor interviews will be entertained, and the final decision will rest absolutely with the appointed judges.

Fourteen (14) prizes aggregating £150 will be awarded to the winners in the form of War Savings Certificates or War Bonds, on the following basis:—

Grand 1st Prize for Australasia's Greatest Beauty	£40
Grand 2nd Prize for Australasia's Next Greatest Beauty	£20
Grand 3rd Prize for Australasia's Next Greatest Beauty	£10

Eight (8) prizes of £10 each to be awarded to most beautiful girl or woman in each of the six Australian States and each of the two important islands of New Zealand.

By the rulings of the competition it is permissible for one contestant to win two prizes, viz., 1st prize of £40, also State prize of £10, aggregating £50; or in the case of 3rd prize, the total award would be £20, including the £10 State prize.

JUDGES FOR STATE PRIZES

NEW SOUTH WALES: SYDNEY URE SMITH, Esq., Prominent Artist, Sydney.
 VICTORIA: W. H. McNALLY, Esq., Famous Victorian Painter, Melbourne.
 SOUTH AUSTRALIA: WILL ASHTON, Esq., Leading Figure in Realm of Art.
 QUEENSLAND: GARNET AGNEW, Esq., Widely-known Artist, Brisbane.
 WEST AUSTRALIA: W. APPLEBY, Esq., Perth.
 TASMANIA: L. F. REYNOLD, Esq., Popular Bulletin Curator, Hobart.
 NEW ZEALAND: CHARLES WILSON, Esq., Chief Parliamentary Librarian, Wellington.

JUDGES FOR GRAND PRIZES

For Australasia's Greatest Beauty

O. N. BAERYTZ, Famous Art, Musical, and Literary Critic, and Editor of *The Triad* Magazine.
 SYDNEY URE SMITH, Prominent Artist.
 H. P. WILLIAMS, Managing Editor *The Land* Newspaper.

In the face of indisputable testimony—and there are hundreds of men and women, with more coming constantly, who voluntarily vouch for the remarkable properties of **CRYSTOLIS**—you must agree that there must be something in this great American treatment after all. Surely something out of the ordinary, something vastly different and much more successful than anything that has ever been discovered to assist in promoting hair growth—in unfolding its beauty—developing its abundance.

Don't you think it is worth looking into, just as thousands of others have done? Thousands of women—men, too—with thinning, short hair, falling out, worse at each combing, say, "Oh what wouldn't I give for beautiful, heavy, long, glossy, clean hair, that wouldn't come out." But when someone suggests a way, they cry: "No fear. Nothing will make my hair grow." And others who have been almost bald say, "It's my nature to have poor, ugly hair. Before you have used **CRYSTOLIS** you do not, and cannot, decide whether further efforts are hopeless.

CRYSTOLIS has helped promote hair growth for hundreds who doubted, and despite their doubts. In using **CRYSTOLIS** you don't promote hair growth, have it lengthened and beautified "on faith." You merely use it and watch the results as your hair stops falling out, dandruff vanishes, and short, scraggy hair becomes long and abundant. Examine your scalp in the mirror before using **CRYSTOLIS**; again soon afterward, and see the countless, new hairs that have sprung forth from every thin spot. Watch them grow with amazing speed. If you desire a glorious head of hair, to check falling hair, drive out dandruff, to make your hair long, soft and brilliant, go to your chemist to-day and get some **CRYSTOLIS** CONCENTRATE and use as directed. **CRYSTOLIS** will either succeed, or it won't, but the only way to know is to try it. You can easily decide by a few applications. And forty-two days' treatment according to directions is guaranteed to give satisfaction, or you are refunded all you paid for it.

CRYSTOLIS is perfectly harmless, not oily, greasy, or sticky. You apply it to your scalp, where it is absorbed into the roots to cleanse, dissolve and discharge all foreign germinal matter, and to stimulate the papillae so that the hair may burst forth anew in abundance all over your head. Folks blessed with good hair don't want **CRYSTOLIS** to create this condition. Their scalps do their duty without help. But the scalps of thin-haired folks do not. Nourishment nature intends for their scalps is largely destroyed by the dandruff germ. You only need try **CRYSTOLIS** to prove if this is true in your own case. Why not begin to-night?

One bottle of **CRYSTOLIS** concentrate makes up three-quarters of a pint of liquid. An equal quantity of the old-fashioned "hair tonics" in expensive bottles and packing costs twice to three times as much.

ALL LEADING CHEMISTS.

5 per cent. loan, subject to income tax, 93½; the last 4 per cent. loan, 101½. Consols are now quoted at 55½.

In a recent report on afforestation, the Reconstruction Committee said that the total area under woodland in the United Kingdom was estimated at 3,000,000 acres. The annual yield, which is believed to have been about 45,000,000 cubic feet, is one-third of what it should have been under correct silvicultural management!

Russian securities have been badly hit by the revolution and the making of peace. Russian Government 5 per cents. of 1906 were quoted at 80 at the end of 1916, and at 52½ at the end of 1917. Petrograd 4½ per cents. of 1913, quoted at 72 a year ago, are now quoted at 50, and railway bonds have all of them depreciated by from 25 to 30 per cent.

The Austrians are complaining that nothing is being done to further Austrian commercial interests in Poland, where the German traders, through a Central Bureau with showrooms and offices, in all the chief occupied towns, have been in operation ever since the withdrawal of the Russians. The future trade of Poland, say Austrian papers plaintively, seems now to have been earmarked for Germany alone.

Canada's Victory Loan, which brought in 408,475,400 dollars, was subscribed to by 707,113 people, that is to say, the subscriptions came from one in every ten of the entire population. The last English War Loan brought in subscriptions from one in every 23 of the population. The first Liberty Loan in the United States was on the basis of 1 in 27, and the second on the basis of 1 in 11½. The third Canadian War Loan was subscribed for on the basis of 1 in 187 of the population. This gives some idea of the thoroughness with which the Victory Loan canvassers covered the Dominion.

Switzerland, although not at war, has had to borrow money extensively to keep her army under arms in case of eventualities.

The eighth mobilisation loan brought in 100,000,000 francs, interest paid is 5 per cent., and the loan is redeemable in thirty years. The first loan was for 30,000,000 francs, the second for 50,000,000, both carrying five per cent. The four following loans, each for 100,000,000 francs, carried 4 per cent. only. What is called the Neutrality Expenditure, stood at 995,000,000 francs. This had been expended as follows:—740,200,000 francs for mobilisation, 238,000,000 francs for civil assistance, 16,800,000 francs for advances for internment purposes.

The unfortunate Paris resolutions advocating economic war after peace is made, were long ago subjected by President Wilson to a douche of cold water which might be regarded as sufficient in itself to kill them. Many nails, though, are now being driven in their coffin on the European side of the Atlantic. The Congress of Trades Unions last September by a majority of 2,000,000 directly negated them. The Labour Conference in January approved, with practical unanimity, a memorandum to the effect that "trade policy after the war must not be founded on the economic repression or commercial isolation of the German people." Mr. J. H. Thomas, M.P., in a powerful speech, stated that if we were going to adopt the Paris resolutions we were going to have an economic war which would provide the elements for a future war. Mr. Lowther, the respected Speaker of the House of Commons, speaking in December, said he wanted peace founded on sound conditions, but a boycott of Germany would not be the way to obtain peace. That would be a way of carrying on the war. In many respects it would be almost as bad as the war at the present time. He did not believe in the idea that we should boycott Germany commercially, and allow none of our raw materials to go to that country. Lord Robert Cecil, in the House of Commons, said: "I want to make it perfectly clear that so far as I am concerned I am no advocate, nor do I believe that any member of the Government is an advocate of what is called an economic war after the war." And so on, until the most ardent advocate of the Paris resolutions must wonder why these findings were hailed with such enthusiasm a short two years ago!

ESPERANTO NOTES.

Amerika Esperantisto, one of the most serious of the non-European journals, has since the entry of the United States into the war undertaken a campaign of enlightenment as to the aims of that country in the war and in international relations generally. By this means it is assisting to produce in foreign countries a correct impression of the position of the United States. Under the heading, "Important State Documents," the journal has published translations of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution; besides these somewhat dreary productions there have appeared several stories and allegories from various sources—even from enemy sources, with suitable comment—showing how America stands in regard to the other belligerents. It will be remembered that in the early stages of the war the German Government had many of its official publications translated into Esperanto, and distributed in foreign countries in order to justify its conduct of the war, and in reply similar action was taken in France and Italy.

The veteran artist and writer, Felix Moscheles, whose death was recently reported from London, was for many years a firm supporter of Esperanto. A man of cosmopolitan tastes, and the friend of eminent artists and musicians of many countries, he from the first realised the value of such a language in International affairs, and became one of its earliest adherents in England. As president of the International Arbitration and Peace Association, he brought Esperanto under the notice of people of various countries as an important means of drawing the nations closer together by overcoming the language barrier. At his home in London, which contained a delightful collection of artistic treasures, many languages might be heard, and of these Esperanto was not the least frequent.

The Church Esperantist League, formed two years ago in England, for the propagation of Esperanto among the members of the Church of England, makes satisfactory progress, and now publishes a journal of its own under the name of *La Eklezia Revuo*. The League has already made a translation of the Book of Common Prayer, and aims at the translation of various Eng-

lish works of interest to churchmen, such as *Piers Plowman*, *Paradise Lost*, *Caucer*, and certain theological works. The members of the league do not limit their activities to the Church, for the journal contains reports of propaganda work for Esperanto work among various influential societies, and of vigorous newspaper correspondence in support of the language.

The Esperanto journals contain reports of much activity among the Esperantists of Holland. In various towns propaganda has been energetically carried on, and solitary Esperantists (even in compact Holland it is possible to be solitary) have been placed in touch with the central Esperanto organisation. A country situated as Holland is, and with a large foreign trade by sea and by land, has special need of an international language, and the present labours will bear more abundant fruit after the war, when trade can be resumed under normal conditions. The progress of Esperanto among the interned soldiers and sailors of various nationalities has already been referred to on this page; the latest move is the formation of an Esperanto society among the soldiers of the Dutch army, which has been mobilised since the beginning of the war.

Following upon their work for the Red Cross in presenting two ambulance cars, the British Esperanto Association is now arranging to endow a bed in a London Red Cross Hospital, to be known as the Esperanto Bed.

Since the beginning of this year the Gosford Girls' School, N.S.W., has introduced Esperanto in the programme of modern languages, and the pupils are making rapid progress in the *lingvo*. The teacher is Geo. Collingridge, Esperanto Consul for N.S.W..

Readers of STEAD'S REVIEW interested in Esperanto should communicate with the nearest Esperanto society: *Komerca Esperanta Klubo*, or *Esperanta Societo Melbourne*, both at Box 731, Elizabeth street P.O., Melbourne; *Zamenhofa Klubo*, 223 Stanmore road, Stanmore, Sydney; Mr. W. L. Waterman, Torrens road, Kilkenny, Adelaide; *Hobart Esperanta Grupo*, 7 Glen street, Hobart; Mr. C. Kidd, O'Mara street, Lutwyche, Brisbane; Mr. T. Burt, Stott's College, Perth.

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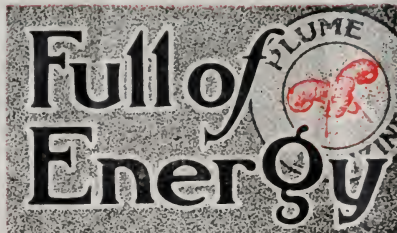
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